

# **THE RULING ELITE**

**A STUDY IN IMPERIALISM, GENOCIDE AND EMANCIPATION**



**DEANNA SPINGOLA**

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Genocide and Emancipation

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## INTRODUCTION

As children, we all adopt heroes, people to emulate and respect. Then we grow up and begin to discover that the people we thought were worthy of our praises were actually a bunch of scoundrels. Some of those rogues were part of the ruling elite, a group composed of people who do whatever it takes to rise to the top of whatever occupational field or social hierarchy in which they are involved. Because most people are ethical and considerate, they would never deliberately harm others and believe that other people feel the same way. We assume that everyone has a conscience and would never deliberately hurt or deceive others. Sociopaths or psychopaths survive by taking advantage of our ignorance and naivety.

However, the people in the top echelon of many organizations live by other rules. Frequently, that involves some rather nefarious activities that most of us would never consider. In fact, they may exhibit psychopathic tendencies, including violent aggression against others. One might find a high percentage of psychopathic personalities in the political environment. Someone suggested that I title this book *The Ruling Psycho-Sociopaths*, probably much more accurate than the title I chose. Politicians, typically skilled in the persuasive arts, would have us believe that they actually serve the best interests of the people of whatever country they happen to reside in. The fact is that they are usually self-serving, highly manipulative, must control circumstances and people, have an insatiable desire for wealth and they may have psychopathic personalities. Psychopaths climb the ranks of most social hierarchies, habitually lie without remorse, and always say whatever is necessary to acquire position. Power does not always corrupt. However, corrupt individuals seek power. There are two sets of laws in every country, one for the elites and one for the rest of us.

The money powers control the majority of the world's political leaders, particularly in America and England, two countries that have collaborated in many aggressive campaigns against less developed resource-rich countries. These two countries have consistent strategies of conquest where they target and then invade other nations, always under false pretenses. As men and now women fight, kill and obliterate the local culture, the ubiquitous bankers and corporate moguls wait until the military has captured, arrested and tried the local political leaders and have adequately subdued the residents. Under the auspices of restoring order, the victors occupy the country, impose a central bank, build military bases to protect the natural resources and assume control of the political apparatus. Well-connected corporate interests then mine the gold, silver, and minerals, extract the oil, coal, and other resources using available low-cost labor. People, shaped by the media, soon forget the initial reasons for the invasion as other circumstances develop that requires a continued occupation.

An examination of unrevised history provides ample evidence of the long-term diabolical deeds of the elite classes in every country. Alternative information is available despite dedicated efforts to control information through compulsory education and the corporate-controlled media. Because history is prologue, one may acquire an accurate perception of the events and political schemes of the current power base by evaluating what those same kinds of people have done in the past. Yet, due to disinformation, deception, and calculating rhetoric, ethical moral people frequently underestimate, justify or even dismiss the suspicious behavior of their political leaders. Notwithstanding the election charade, I reiterate – presidential candidates, with negligible exceptions, are self-serving, power-hungry, parasitical people who the money powers have recruited, coached, and installed based on their compliance to the international banker's profit-producing agenda. Their candidates receive the media spotlight and seemingly, everything falls into place regardless of problematic qualifications.

International bankers fund the industrialists who control consumer energy, communications, transportation, pharmaceutical companies, and resource production. Industrialists socially engineer the culture through

their tax-exempt foundations, which influences our perceptions from kindergarten through graduate school. The foundations control organizations like the American Medical Association, the American Psychological Association and other organizations staffed with “experts” who disseminate and promote standards of behavior, medical practices, and health standards, policies and procedures. Industrialists control the politicians, professional plunderers who, despite their rhetoric, only pretend to serve the public interests while lining their own pockets. Members of Congress enact legislation, based on what thousands of industrial lawyer/ lobbyists concoct, often without so much as a glance at what they are signing. Representative government ends when the polls close.

Given the predominance of court historians, one must carefully compare America’s actual history, not the one promoted in government schools, with his/her own value system. We cannot recognize where we are going or what we have become unless we know what the politicians have perpetrated against others in our name. Almost without dissent, we gradually accepted the transformation from an isolationist nation that purportedly encouraged the rights of self-government into a population that allowed greedy industrial interests to control our political systems, our educational systems and our religious systems in order to create an expanding globalist empire. In the process, we have sacrificed our principles, our liberties and have become self-righteous instead of righteous. The attributes of exclusivity and self-righteousness are as offensive in nations as they are in individuals.

The elite feel compelled to exercise authority and control over humanity. In order to manipulate the lives of the world’s people, they find it is essential to plunder, regulate and selectively distribute the earth’s resources – food, water and shelter and the means to obtain those necessities. The elite consider many of the world’s peoples expendable and categorize them as consumers, commodities, slaves, or useless eaters. To facilitate a nefarious worldwide hegemony, the elite purchase or seize domination within existing governments, or they take control under the guise of establishing freedom, democracy or emancipating people from dictatorial control or the potential invasion by some tyrannical group, usually one that the elite created and controlled.

Full implementation of a one-world government requires the annihilation of all defiant governments in conjunction with the establishment of central banks controlled by the international banking elite. The enforced establishment of a New World Order depends on our duplicitous military involvement for we are currently the military minions of the powerful elite.

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# THE BANKING AND INDUSTRIAL ELITE

## Banking Conceived in Iniquity

Josiah Charles Stamp, a director of the Bank of England said, “Banking was conceived in iniquity and was born in sin. The bankers own the earth. Take it away from them, but leave them the power to create money, and with the flick of the pen they will create enough deposits to buy it back again. However, take it away from them, and all the great fortunes like mine will disappear and they ought to disappear, for this would be a happier and better world to live in. But, if you wish to remain the slaves of bankers and pay the cost of your own slavery, let them continue to create money.”

In the seventeenth century, Sephardic Jews fleeing from Spain first went to Portugal and then ultimately to Amsterdam following the closure of Antwerp’s harbor in 1585, which became the commercial and financial center of Europe. In Amsterdam, they became part of the community’s economic class but, by choice, remained a separate ethnic minority. The Portuguese and the Jewish merchants, developed trade routes where they utilized dependable, trusted contacts, often members of the family, at both ends of the route. These routes included sea routes to Brazil, Curaçao and New Amsterdam.<sup>[1]</sup>

Menasseh Ben Israel, a Portuguese rabbi, cabbalist, scholar, and publisher, owned the first Hebrew printing press in Amsterdam in 1626. He and his parents left Portugal and moved to the Netherlands in 1610. In 1657, Menasseh Ben Israel and Fernandez Moses Carvajal, a Portuguese Marrano, purportedly financed Oliver Cromwell and his activities. Cromwell, one of the commanders of the New Model Army during the English Civil War, defeated the royalists, overthrew the monarchy, and executed King Charles I. Cromwell temporarily turned England into a republican Commonwealth where he became the Lord Protector of England, Scotland and Ireland (1653-1658).<sup>[2]</sup>

Cromwell recognized the influence of the Jewish community in Holland’s economic success, which was, at the time, England’s principle commercial competitor. He had no particular loyalties to evangelical Puritanism so on March 24, 1655/56, he issued a petition to allow the Jews to return to England, over 350 years after Edward I had banished them in 1290.<sup>[3]</sup> Cromwell hoped that they would assist in the financial recovery of the country after the Civil Wars (1642–1651) between the Parliamentarians and Royalists. Some people claim that the Jews never really left; they just went underground. Manasseh Ben Israel arrived in London in 1655. Cromwell was indebted to them and felt that England would benefit by having merchant bankers as part of their economic environment.<sup>[4]</sup>

In 1666, the British East India Company, a corporation owned by the goldsmiths and moneylenders, convinced Charles II to convey the privilege of coining money to them, which deprived the Crown of one of its revenue sources. Moneylenders then began altering and manipulating the financial systems of the world, creating economic catastrophes, a phenomenon then unknown. The King changed the law, and the mint then only received “large deposits of bullion and coin,” which it then dispatched to the Orient or India in exchange for gold. The moneylenders, through this unusual swap, possibly made as much as 30% profit.<sup>[5]</sup>

Moses Mocatta, a Marrano Jew, established his London banking house in Camomile Street in 1671. Mocatta initially sent gold to India in 1676 through the East India Company.<sup>[6]</sup>

Moneylenders in Amsterdam, with \$2 million guilders, financed the coup of Prince William of Orange and his wife Mary, the daughter of James II. Prince William hired an army in order to depose James and seize control of the government. When they arrived in December 1688, with their hired guns, the English commander joined them and by January 1689, James escaped to France and Prince William and Mary ascended the throne. Moneylenders conceived the Revolution of 1688 to replace an “insolvent ruler” with

appreciative leaders who would be beholden to them for their title.<sup>[7]</sup> The “court Jews” that funded the coup against King James II included Isaac de Pinto, a Portuguese Jewish banker and Francisco Lopes Suasso, a Portuguese Jew, who both gave large amounts of money so William III could move to England.<sup>[8]</sup> Solomon de Medina, a wealthy Jew, traveled with William III to England as an army contractor. He established a communication system better than the one the government had. His agents received important news before it reached the ministers of the crown. The King knighted him in 1700 for his vital services. In 1694, William (1650-1702) chartered the Bank of England, through William Paterson, a front man for the Dutch bankers, which institutionalized the national debt and secured massive profits for the Jewish moneylenders through taxing the citizens of England.<sup>[9]</sup>

The Bank of England, a private corporation, had a twelve-year charter. The bankers encouraged the King, their puppet, to borrow massive amounts of money from them, which inaugurated a national debt, national because it was now the people’s responsibility to repay it. The Bank exchanged their money for bonded debt. England’s national debt prior to the moneylender’s seizure of the nation’s financial system in 1694 was £1.5 million. A century later, the national debt was £848 million. Thus, we can understand how the moneylenders actually control the world – through the dictatorial and coldblooded control of a nation’s finances.<sup>[10]</sup> By 1697, the government gave the Bank exclusive rights to engage in banking, including issuing notes (fiat currency) in England.

In 1702, there was a gold rush in Brazil, which prompted the opening of a mint in Rio de Janeiro where they made *moedas de ouro*, most of which, over a period of sixty years, they shipped to London where they minted the coins into guineas. In 1731, the British government appointed Moses Mocatta as the official broker in gold and silver for the Bank of England. In 1732, the bank opened its own bullion warehouse, later named The Bullion Office, which functioned as a clearinghouse of precious metals for more than a century. By 1740, the Bank of England had a gold reserve. Much of the gold from Brazil came to London via Lisbon. From 1774 to 1777, Mocatta purchased 550,000 troy ounces for the Bank’s account, which amounted to three-quarters of the world’s output. In 1783, the firm became Mocatta & Goldsmid for Asher Goldsmid had joined the firm in 1779.<sup>[11]</sup>

When Britain and France began their warfare in the 1790s, the British government’s military expenses quickly exceeded their expectations. Therefore, the government issued paper notes with the anticipation that the Bank of England would convert the notes into gold on demand. Britain’s gold reserve fell to less than £2,000,000 and by February 21, 1797, Bank of England’s gold reserve was down to 235,000 troy ounces (£1 million) but they had cash liabilities of £15.5 million.<sup>[12]</sup> Banks discontinued payments in gold. Merchants and bankers panicked and King George III, the Prime Minister, William Pitt the Younger, the members of the Privy Council, Sir Joseph Banks, Lord Charles Somerset, Honorable Andrew Cochrane, John Murray, Honorable John Trevor, and Sir Charles Grey and other influential advisors held meetings with the Bank of England and enacted legislation to print fiat money. Gold ceased to circulate which alleviated the panic. Parliament suspended cash payments in gold and made it illegal to export gold.<sup>[13]</sup>

These bankers made fortunes during a ten-year period when Britain’s gold reserves fell (1797-1807).

In 1805, Nathan Mayer Rothschild had already established his banking house in London where he engaged in secret shipments of gold and silver to the Duke of Wellington’s army in Europe against Napoleon. Mocatta & Goldsmid rounded up the gold, often bidding over the market price, which altered the value. In 1809, David Ricardo (born 1772), an economist and author of *The High Price of Bullion*, wrote letters to the *Morning Chronicle* regarding Britain’s decreasing gold reserves in relation to the foreign markets. Ricardo, whose father was a Jewish merchant banker and stockbroker, was close friends and “intellectual opponents” with Thomas Malthus, known for his theories about population and its increase or decrease in response to economic and other factors.

Francis Horner, after lengthy parliamentary debate, encouraged the establishment of an official committee to evaluate the economic issue in detail, to question experts, and to draft a report with suggestions for the House of Commons. Eighteen days later, the House named the twenty-two knowledgeable members of The Select Committee, many from the financial world, and others who were civil servants, to investigate the Cause of the High Price of Gold Bullion. The hearings lasted for thirty-one days, between February 22 and May 25, 1810. The Committee interviewed twenty-nine witnesses, all fully identified except for one person, from business, finance, academia, and government. They referred to the unidentified person as a “very eminent Continental Merchant” who was “intimately acquainted with the trade between this Country and the Continent.” People assumed, rightly so, that the unidentified expert was N. M. Rothschild.<sup>[14]</sup>

Twenty-five year old Aaron Asher Goldsmid, son of Asher Goldsmid, was a partner with Mocatta & Goldsmid.<sup>[15]</sup> The young Goldsmid testified before the Parliamentary Select committee on the High Price of Gold Bullion beginning February 22, 1810 and about the enormous profits possible through purchasing specie in England and selling it on the continent.<sup>[16]</sup> Nathan Rothschild surpassed them through his family network and their ability to transfer gold quickly. When the English government needed quick gold manipulations, they approached Rothschild despite their long-term relationship with Mocatta & Goldsmid.

In 1810, the *House of Commons Select Committee on the High Price of Bullion*, met to discuss the price of bullion, which had risen from the normal £3.89 for gold to £4.50. As they reviewed the situation, individuals presented evidence and provided insights into the London market. Those who testified, Aaron Asher Goldsmid, Nathan M. Rothschild (incognito) and gold refiner William Merle explained the trade. The Committee concluded that the Bank of England had been printing too many notes and therefore, they were no longer redeemable in gold.

In 1810, a member of the House of Lords, Peter King, in a speech, informed his tenants that he would no longer accept the devalued Bank notes for their rent according to their various leases signed long before the decisions of the committee. He felt that he should not suffer the consequences of the inflation imposed by their recent decisions. He gave his renters two options – they could pay their rent in sufficient gold equal to the value of the Bank notes when they signed their lease. Alternatively, they could pay their rent with enough Bank notes to buy that quantity of gold at its current price. He also stated that he intended to pay his creditors in the same way. He published a pamphlet of his speech with a correspondent table of values. Parliament members were so outraged at his idea that they enacted legislation stating that the monetary figures in contracts were immune and individuals could not arbitrarily revise them.<sup>[17]</sup>

When the war ended in 1814, outstanding bank notes totaled £28.4 million while gold reserves amounted to only £2.2 million. The British currency depreciated by about 30% creating such stress on the economy that the government imposed a gold standard to stabilize the currency. This also alleviated the Bank of England from the responsibility of converting banknotes into gold. After the French Revolutionary Wars and the Napoleonic Wars, the British government attempted to stabilize their currency through the Great Recoinage of 1816. The Coinage Act helped to establish gold as the standard by replacing the guinea with the sovereign.<sup>[18]</sup>

In 1821, after further catastrophes, more debates, hearings, inflation and the deflation that follows “major wars,” Parliament reinstated the policy whereby one could exchange Bank notes for gold at the price level in 1797. The government issued the sovereign and the Mint coined thirty-five million sovereigns in 1821 to accommodate the legislation. The government officially imposed the gold standard, which became a precedent for other countries for almost 100 years. This monetary system positioned “metal above man in managing the nation’s money supply.” Subsequently, central bankers may manipulate currency, alter the free market, and disseminate ambiguous rhetoric about checks and balances, sign and

promote trade agreements while keeping a nation mired in interest-laden debt.<sup>[19]</sup>

The moneylenders have always used warfare to garner massive profits. Before William and Mary commandeered the British throne, moneylenders lent money based on the Crown's assurance and credit. However, with the advent of this conniving couple, insolvent kings simply shifted their debts to the people. The unwary population, without their consent, was now accountable for the debts of the improvident, irresponsible government. The British East India Company had carefully conceived this transfer of responsibility to the people – the government could then squander the product of the people's labor.<sup>[20]</sup>

In the early 1800s, the Bank of England created fiat currency to accommodate their commercial customers. The prospectors contributed to the supply of currency in the United States, Australia, and South Africa. Yet, it is merely one of the earth's resources that the elite have assigned a value. While the members of the Bullion Committee considered that people might discover new quantities of gold, they probably never anticipated the furor over the immense gold strikes in various places in the world between 1848 and 1900, in California, Colorado, Alaska, Australia and South Africa. Gold, as well as oil, assigned a value by the elites who control its production and distribution, plays a glorified role in our civilization. Meanwhile, the materialistic elites have devalued humanity to the level of profit-producing consumers or expendable dross.<sup>[21]</sup>

## **Mayer, the Merchant of Judengasse**

Mayer A. Rothschild said, "It takes a great deal of boldness, mixed with a vast deal of caution to acquire a great fortune; and then it takes ten times as much wit to keep it after you have got it, as it took to make it."<sup>[22]</sup>

From the time of its founding, the Rothschild banking family has maintained strict privacy. The family sequesters itself in private splendor, away from all publicity. People assume, wrongly, that their power and influence has diminished and only the legend remains. That is exactly what they want people to think. They own banks in the world's major cities and a huge network of industrial, mining, commercial and tourist corporations, and numerous charities – all unassociated with their name. They dispense their charities from a special department of the London bank. Their name does not appear on any of their business headquarters.<sup>[23]</sup>

In the mid-1700s, Germany was composed of more than a hundred states, each governed by sovereigns with citizens that spoke as many as twelve different dialects. The rich, typically the wholesale merchants, dominated each city. People found the ideas of nationhood and a concentration of state power inconceivable. Every principality, like Frankfurt, successfully coined its own money, creating the necessity for moneychangers. They did not allow Jews to farm or own land but they could own the houses upon the land. Most of Frankfurt's Jews were pawnbrokers, moneychangers or they operated second-hand shops.<sup>[24]</sup>

Ashkenazi Jews of the Germanic states, not legal citizens, with surnames, adopted names associated with their houses or shops. People can trace the Rothschild name back to the ancestor, Izaak, son of Elchanan as noted on his tombstone.<sup>[25]</sup> He lived in the Frankfurt ghetto in a house at the more affluent end of Judengasse (Jews' Alley), from which he had derived his name, zum roten Schild (at the sign of the red shield). The family retained the name when they relocated, years later, to another house, the Hinterpfann.<sup>[26]</sup> They shared the dark and dreary three-story, 900 square feet house with the Bauer family, along with their respective businesses.<sup>[27]</sup>

Mayer Amschel Rothschild was born in that dilapidated tenement on February 23, 1744 in the Jewish ghetto, home to about 2,500 Jews. He was the fourth of eight children of Schönche Lechnich and Amschel

Moses Rothschild, a moneychanger and traveling merchant who, later accompanied by the very astute Mayer, often sold beads and trinkets to the servants at the castle of the Landgrave (Landlord).<sup>[28]</sup> Amschel sent Mayer, his brightest child, to the Yeshiva at Fürth near Nürnberg to become a rabbi. Mayer's father died on October 6, 1755 during a smallpox epidemic in the overcrowded ghetto. His mother died on June 29, 1756. In 1757, relatives helped Mayer secure an apprenticeship under Wolf Jacob Oppenheimer, at the Jewish banking house started by Simon Wolf Oppenheimer in Hannover, a city a little more tolerant of Jews.<sup>[29]</sup> Wolf Jacob and Simon Wolf Oppenheimer were descendants of Samuel Oppenheimer, the Court Jew to the Austrian Court.

Mayer A. Rothschild, now part of the privileged world of the Oppenheimers, expanded his inherent monetary skills. He gained useful experience in foreign trade, currency exchange and augmented his knowledge of rare coins through the bank's rare coin collection. By the age of eighteen, his superiors and their customers considered him an expert in old coins. He assisted bank patrons, like General von Estorff, in their purchases of collectable coins. In 1763, he returned to the Judengasse, an area completely walled in from the rest of Frankfurt in order to facilitate the collection of taxes. Soldiers manacled the ghetto's three gates at five o'clock every night.<sup>[30]</sup> They re-opened the gates every morning at seven o'clock. Officials paid the guards out of the taxes collected from the Jews.<sup>[31]</sup>

Frankfurt (Frankfurt am Main), a major trade center, was located on the trade routes leading from England, the Netherlands, Russia, Venice and France to the hanseatic towns of the north. Frankfurt, on the banks of the Main River, allowed ready access to the Rhine, Europe's key waterway and, at the time, the cheapest, most efficient, downriver transport.<sup>[32]</sup> Mayer worked with his two brothers, Moses and Kalmann, in their secondhand shop. Gradually, he developed a new section where he traded in lucrative rare coins, medals and other curios, quaint jewels, engravings and antiques. General von Estorff, the ardent coin collector, was now attached to the court of Prince Wilhelm of the Principality of Hanau, near Frankfurt.<sup>[33]</sup> Rothschild persuaded Estorff to entice Prince Wilhelm to purchase a small quantity of his most precious coins and medals at a very special discount price. Discount pricing was/is a very shrewd Rothschild tactic. Even Prince Wilhelm could not withstand the temptation of a good deal.<sup>[34]</sup>

Mayer soon added a Wechselstube, a rudimentary currency exchange, which began to produce steady profits. Merchants often served as bankers – thus the designation of a merchant banker. Merchant banking practices actually originated in Genoa, Venice and Florence and by the fourteenth century, were highly developed. The Medici and Fugger families were early merchant bankers. Subsequently, merchant bankers began engaging in business in other areas of Europe. The Barings established a London branch in 1763. These people were merchants before they engaged in banking, a result of their lengthy trading in a huge assortment of merchandise throughout the world. Their merchandising practices slowly evolved into “the more specialized field of financing the trading.” Initially, the early merchant bankers transacted all of their business themselves until they discovered they could make more profit by hiring agents and factors to handle many of their trades through the bills of exchange. Merchant bankers financed the Napoleonic Wars. They established an “espionage system throughout Europe” and frequently knew more about the circumstances in a county than the king and his advisors.<sup>[35]</sup>

Mayer Rothschild traveled to German cities within a half-day's ride, in order to return by five o'clock before the guards locked the ghetto gates. He participated in Frankfurt's huge spring and autumn fairs which attracted coin collectors from all over Europe.<sup>[36]</sup> He regularly purchased precious coins from needy coin collectors and sought to acquire the entire inventories of his rivals when they realized that they could not compete with Rothschild and his phenomenal bargaining skills. Therefore, he not only acquired his competitor's stock but also built an influential clientele.<sup>[37]</sup> Author Frederic Morton wrote, “The premise of the family's conquest lay in the very unobtrusiveness of their crouch and the silence of their leap.”<sup>[38]</sup> By

1771, Rothschild had a beautifully scripted catalog describing his precious coins and gold medals that he sent to prospective clients all over Europe.<sup>[39]</sup> His brothers remarked that he was, in creating his catalog, like a dedicated Talmudist writing a book.<sup>[40]</sup>

On September 21, 1769, he exploited his small transaction with the prince who appointed Rothschild as a *Hoffaktor* (Court Factor).<sup>[41]</sup> Rothschild posted a sign on his house, “M. A. Rothschild, By Appointment Court Factor to His Serene Highness, Prince Wilhelm of Hanau.” Although honorary factorships were common, it impressed the neighbors and even the ghetto officials, which simplified his regular travels out of the ghetto. Moreover, it apparently impressed Gütle Schnapper’s father, Wolf Salomon Schnapper, also a Court Factor, who then arranged for the couple to marry on August 29, 1770. She came from a relatively well-to-do family who provided a handsome dowry of 2,400 gulden.<sup>[42]</sup>

They soon had children – five sons and five daughters. Their sons would ultimately alter the world, Amschel Mayer (1773-1855), Salomon Mayer (1774-1855), James Mayer (1792-1868), Kalmann (Karl) Mayer (1788-1855) and Nathan Mayer (1777-1836). They had daughters, (Schönche) Jeannette (1771) married January 28, 1795 to Benedikt Moses Worms; (Belche) Isabella Rothschild (1781) married in 1802 to Bernard J. Sichel; Brienliche (Babette) (1784) who married, in 1808, to Sigmund L. Beyfus; Julie (1790) who married, on August 28, 1811, to Mayer Levin Beyfus; Henrietta (Jette) (1791) who married Abraham Montefiore.<sup>[43]</sup>

On Saturday evenings, after prayers at the synagogue, the rabbi often visited at Mayer Rothschild’s house. While sipping wine, they contended about numerous issues, frequently late into the night. Mayer regularly recited “Hebrew singsong” to his family from the Talmud.<sup>[44]</sup> The Rothschild family, at that time, and perhaps to this day, was deeply entrenched in Talmudic teachings.

In 1776, the Landgrave Frederick II of Hesse-Kassel, father to Wilhelm, sold a contingent of about 30,000 Hessians to his English cousin, George III, to fight in the American Revolution for several million in English bills. Rothschild brokered this profitable venture and apparently recognized that war was highly profitable – for both the House of Hesse and the moneychangers.<sup>[45]</sup> Rothschild purportedly made a profit of \$3 million, received from George III of England, because he helped supply those mercenary troops at £8 each. The King sent these troops to the Colonies where they slaughtered the colonists during the American Revolution. The Earl of Chatham and his son William Pitt opposed the policy of the international Money-Barons. King George III appointed Pitt as the Prime Minister because Pitt convinced the King that the bankers were orchestrating wars throughout Europe “to serve their own selfish purposes.” The Rothschilds have always used warfare as a revenue source.<sup>[46]</sup>

Prince Wilhelm’s treasurer, Carl Buderus, managed his massive wealth, obtained by trafficking in human flesh, as his father had before him, through an entity ironically called *Serenity*. Wilhelm conscripted his male subjects and trained them as soldiers. Then he sold or rented them for “peacekeeping” services to Europe’s royal families. Britain used his Hessians to maintain control in the colonies. His customers paid in foreign currency and the prince used several discounters to cash the foreign bills of exchange. Buderus allowed Rothschild, who charged lower discount prices, to cash a few of Serenity’s London drafts.<sup>[47]</sup>

The Rothschilds, just one of fifteen Judengasse families who traded in English textiles, developed important trading connections with Amsterdam, London’s rival in printed textiles and international finance. By the mid-1700s, Jewish merchants were settling in London, including the Goldsmids, Salomans, Levys, Mocattas, Raphaels and the Cohens. They built and attended the Bevis Marks Synagogue and intermarried, a practice designed to avoid assimilation. By 1760, Goldschmidt, a surname common in Frankfurt, and Lehmann Isaak Hanau were the primary Jewish textile merchants in that city. They were Imperial court agents, had a warehouse in Amsterdam, and traded in cottons, silks and drugs, a very profitable venture. In 1795, Mayer would arrange for his son Amschel Mayer to marry Eva Hanau,

daughter of Lehmann Isaak Hanau and Täubche Goldschmidt.<sup>[48]</sup>

Rothschild collaborated with Prince Karl Anselm of the House of Thurn and Taxis, headquartered in Frankfurt, and headed by the Prince who was the hereditary postmaster of the Holy Roman Empire as early as 1290. By 1516, Maximilian I commissioned this Milanese family to develop the Thurn and Taxis postal system between Vienna and Brussels which eventually encompassed all of Central Europe.<sup>[49]</sup> Author Terry Melanson, in his excellent book, *Perfectibilists*, wrote, “The Thurn und Taxis family had the advantage of foreknowledge about politics and business that no other ruling house had ever been privy to.”<sup>[50]</sup> By 1780, Rothschild was one of Anselm’s preferred bankers due to his discounts and short-term loans. He used his association with Anselm to enhance his relationship with Wilhelm.<sup>[51]</sup>

Adam Weishaupt probably also benefited from the postmaster’s unique position as he had told his cohorts to exploit those charged with supervising correspondence.<sup>[52]</sup> Prince Karl Anselm, the “hereditary postmaster” (1773-1805), routinely extracted information from private communications, which he gave to the Emperor Francis II, the last Holy Roman Emperor (1792-1806). Rothschild, realizing the importance of “early and accurate information,” in exchange for vital information, continued to provide Anselm with profitable opportunities. Ultimately, using his association with Anselm, he persuaded the emperor to appoint his family as the “crown agent.” Francis II consented and issued a patent, dated January 29, 1800. This would function as a veritable “passport” throughout Germany.<sup>[53]</sup>

Rothschild added a transport and forwarding agency (early-day Western Union) expanding his business into a wholesale commodities trading company. His two oldest sons Salomon and Amschel worked in the business.<sup>[54]</sup> Mayer’s wife and girls also worked in the shop and Mayer tutored the boys in the Wechselstube. Though they remained on Judengasse, Mayer, like other merchants, rented offices and a large four-roomed warehouse outside of the ghetto in Fahrgasse.<sup>[55]</sup> The family worked from morning until late at night and Mayer became a major wholesaler with large stocks of English woolens, cottons, and coffee, sugar, flour and rabbit skins. He deliberately cloaked his wealth behind a modest lifestyle.<sup>[56]</sup> In 1782, he hired an assistant and began granting letters of credit, extending small loans and handling capital transfers and commodities exchanges. He reinvested the profits to enlarge his business.<sup>[57]</sup> One of his London agents was Saloman Salomans, a rich broker. When Mayer sent Nathan to London in 1798, he stayed with Levi Salomans.<sup>[58]</sup>

In 1783, Carl Buderus influenced the Frankfurt officials to give Mayer a gate pass which allowed him to leave the ghetto at night, on Sundays and other normally restricted times.<sup>[59]</sup> On October 31, 1785, Prince Wilhelm’s father died and the prince’s finances dramatically increased when he became heir to his father’s huge fortune. Now he was Wilhelm IX, the Landgrave (Landlord) of Hesse-Kassel. He moved his entire entourage into the great palace of Wilhelmshöhe at Kassel.

In 1786, Mayer purchased a four-story, fourteen-foot wide, thirty-eight feet long frame house, built in 1615, for 11,000 gulden, referred to as the Grünes Schild (Green Shield). It had a much bigger first-floor shop, a water pump in the kitchen, faced the street and was closer to the synagogue. The house had an underground passage leading from a secret cellar in their house to the cellar in the house next door. The “Green Shield” was the left half of the building and the Schiff family, probably headed by Joseph Moses Schiff (1740), owned the other half, composed of two little apartments.<sup>[60]</sup> His son, Jacob Hirsch Schiff (1762) had Moses Schiff (1810) who was the father of Jacob Henry Schiff, all of whom worked with and for the Rothschild family.<sup>[61]</sup> They converted the Grünes Schild, into a counting house, the first major Rothschild bank. There was a large iron chest, a decoy that served as a trapdoor leading into a hidden cellar, which led to a second cavern. This allegedly served as the temporary repository for Wilhelm’s documents, contracts, deeds, gold, packets of securities and important papers.<sup>[62]</sup>

On October 22, 1792, French troops entered Frankfurt, received a hostile reception from the Jews, and

the Prussian military forced them out. Wilhelm, who the French detested, had been wavering on whether to remain neutral in the battle between France and the Grand Coalition of England, Prussia and Austria. He offered to join the coalition if England would pay him a subsidy of £100,000, which would provide additional business for the moneychangers.<sup>[63]</sup> In July 1796, Napoleon's troops bombarded Frankfurt and inadvertently set fire to the northern part of the Judengasse and destroyed more than half of the ghetto, leaving at least 2,000 people homeless. The fire missed Mayer's house and many of the people never rebuilt their homes.<sup>[64]</sup> The allied bombing of Frankfurt during World War II ultimately destroyed Mayer's house.

The Austrian Commissary-in-chief, General von Wimmer, established his headquarters in Frankfurt. His supervisors charged him with providing provisions for the Austrian troops, which presented profitable prospects for local entrepreneurs. Rothschild, now a military contractor, soon supplied the large Austrian army with wheat, uniforms, horses, and equipment, an undertaking requiring the use of sub-contractors and additional assistants to manage the paperwork. He also managed the payroll distribution to the soldiers. Given this opportunity and his huge commissions, he accumulated a hefty amount of cash.<sup>[65]</sup> If he effectively handled this military contract, he could position himself alongside some of the Frankfurt banks. The military contract probably involved large transfers of capital, possibly millions of gulden. He had already earned a good reputation for his business shrewdness.<sup>[66]</sup>

Mayer's status as a banker increased and soon the House of Rothschild was equal to the Bethmann Brothers, Ruppel & Harnier, and Preye & Jordis, the three most powerful Frankfurt banks.<sup>[67]</sup> He was more aggressive than his competitors were and offered better terms with his policy of maximizing volume by minimizing profits. He previously handled Wilhelm's funds in partnership with other banks but he quickly assumed full responsibility, probably due to Buderus' intercession. Soon, he squeezed out other competitors vying for Wilhelm's business and by 1807, he had a monopoly.<sup>[68]</sup>

On October 6, 1806, Mayer buried Prince Wilhelm's minutes of his Privy Council, entrusted to him, in the secret cellar. He also hid Wilhelm's hoard of jewels which were later found but they were minor compared to the debts that were due Wilhelm from all over Europe. Carl Buderus, who secretly collaborated with Mayer, chose Mayer to manage Wilhelm's vast and complex resources. Under the most adverse circumstances, the Rothschilds were consummate survivors, typically overlooked as unimportant, who juggled ledgers in the most challenging circumstances as if driven by a "demonic drive."<sup>[69]</sup> His management of these new funds allowed him to begin negotiating lucrative state loans.<sup>[70]</sup>

In 1809, Mayer's three oldest sons purchased a piece of property on Judengasse in order to build a new four-story house, offices, and store rooms. Mayer then focused all of his efforts on banking.<sup>[71]</sup> On September 16, 1812, the Day of Atonement, Mayer prayed at the Frankfurt Synagogue the entire day. A surgical wound broke open the next morning. However, even in his weakness, he addressed the issues that were most important to him – his will. He put his business interests in the hands of his sons. "...my daughters, sons-in-law and their heirs having no part whatsoever in the existing firm M. A. Rothschild und Söhne...nor the right to examine the said business, its books, papers, inventory etc....I shall never forgive my children if they should against my paternal will take it upon themselves to disturb my sons in the peaceful possession of their business."<sup>[72]</sup> He died on September 19, 1812 and they buried him next to his ancestor Izaak, son of Elchanan in the ancient cemetery at the bottom of Judengasse.<sup>[73]</sup> Jean Drault, the French writer, claimed that Mayer used to tell his customers, regarding the red shield that hung over his door, "One day this flag will rule the world."<sup>[74]</sup>

## **Nathan Rothschild, Relocation to the Banking Capital**

Concerning Nathan Mayer Rothschild, a friendly biographer Frederic Morton wrote, "You couldn't stop

or even comprehend Rothschild, or even the reason why he, having so much, wanted to conquer more.”<sup>[75]</sup>



Mayer Rothschild sent his son, Nathan to England in September 1798 with approximately £20,000 (about \$1,500,000 in current values) in credits to expand the House of Rothschild abroad.<sup>[76]</sup> Within a short time, Nathan had doubled and then tripled the money. His father, with competitive wholesale prices, dramatically increased his textile business.<sup>[77]</sup> In addition to supplying his father and other Frankfurt traders, Nathan established additional trade connections in France, Sweden, Switzerland, and even Russia and transformed the Rothschild’s business into an international concern.

Napoleon Bonaparte, a military, a political leader and French Emperor, was also a Freemason. The secret society initiated him into the Army Philadelphie Lodge in 1798. He threatened to cross the Channel in 1798, the same year that Nathan Rothschild left for London, England for a short duration, and then he relocated to Manchester, a growing industrial center where many textile wholesalers and merchants thrived.<sup>[78]</sup> Nathan Rothschild also became a Freemason; he joined the Lodge of Emulation in London on October 4, 1802.<sup>[79]</sup> Rothschild, despite wartime embargoes, sent discounted cotton to his father’s warehouse throughout the Napoleonic Wars (1793-1815), a period of incessant warfare kindled by the French Revolution. Prices for all basic goods and commodities skyrocketed, a typical economic situation for any country engaged in warfare. The Rothschilds manipulated the war circumstances, probably paid off some officials, exploited the chaotic cultural conditions and managed to create an international network.<sup>[80]</sup>

Sending his son, Nathan to England was a calculated, well thought out strategy, not mere happenstance.<sup>[81]</sup> Nathan Rothschild did not emigrate from Germany to England to escape ongoing warfare on the European continent. Mayer A. Rothschild had already established business relations with British cotton firms through his financial alliance with Prince Wilhelm. After war erupted again in 1793, a large percentage of the Dutch trade had shifted to north German ports. Consequently, England was the opportune place to be.<sup>[82]</sup>

Nathan Rothschild, non-English speaking, initially worked for the London firm of Levi Saloman and Levi Barent Cohen (1740-1808). Cohen was the son of a prominent Amsterdam textile merchant who had moved to London in 1763, an era when many Jews left Holland – some to England and others to America. Ethnic groups tend to migrate together. Cohen was connected, by marriage, to Abraham and Benjamin Goldsmid, sons of another Amsterdam emigrant. By the end of the eighteenth century, the Goldsmid brothers had become England’s principal loan agents.<sup>[83]</sup> Nathan Rothschild worked with Cohen and Saloman until May 1799 then moved to Manchester to establish his own agency where he traded in textiles. There are no recorded business transactions until February 1800, at about the time that he hired Joseph Barber as a clerk.<sup>[84]</sup> Manchester, in Lancashire, the textile center of England, was reputed to be the world’s first industrialized city.<sup>[85]</sup>

Nathan Rothschild shipped goods into the German states through Hamburg, which shipping agents then transported to Frankfurt and other destinations.<sup>[86]</sup> He followed the family tradition of buying in massive volumes with cash when the market was down and selling in volume at rising levels of profit.<sup>[87]</sup> Currently, the House of Rothschild uses this formula to sell a portion of their accumulated stockpile of gold, probably the bulk of which they seized or acquired when the price was very low, as is their conventional way of doing business.

By 1800, Britain's Industrial Revolution was thriving due to inexpensive labor, capable artisans, cheap coal, good coke, and iron ore. However, Britain lacked sufficient raw products. Its textile industry had exceeded their domestic supplies and continued growth depended on imports. The Lancashire cotton industry developed because of readily available cotton from India and later from America's southern states.<sup>[88]</sup>

In addition to textiles, Nathan purchased foodstuffs, colonial imports and anything else that Napoleon's blockade had categorized as contraband, which added to the profitability. Messrs.' Brothers Müller, of Lübeck, a Hanseatic City in northern Germany, and one of the nation's major ports, received Nathan Rothschild's wares and sent them to their ultimate destinations. In August 1803, the French planned to occupy Travemünde, close to Lübeck, as reported by Joseph Barber, Rothschild's bookkeeper. He merely changed his shipments from Lübeck to the ports of Emden and Tönning until 1806. Those ports were more convenient to Britain and to Frankfurt.<sup>[89]</sup> He established a European supply network from his Manchester base and fortuitously, probably through his covert connections, avoided the blockades. He imported items from the colonies and the Orient by chartering fast ships and hiring special couriers to evade ports under French control. His financial discounts produced higher sales volumes and he seized business from recognized, long-established merchants and banks.<sup>[90]</sup>

Soon previously empty store shelves had product – in Germany, Scandinavia, in the Lowlands and in France. War famine had created a substantially more profitable environment for cotton goods, yarn, tobacco, coffee, sugar, and indigo. Moreover, the Rothschilds, who made a fortune, were happy to exploit the fortuitous opportunities that war on the continent had provided. People, desperate for goods, gladly paid “famine prices” with whatever resources they could acquire.<sup>[91]</sup> Shortages, under any circumstances, mean big profits for the distributors and the financiers – in this case, the House of Rothschild.

Sometime in 1805, Nathan Rothschild and Hannah Cohen, the daughter of Levy Barent Cohen, were betrothed. Cohen was a well-known wealthy textile merchant and international diamond trader. Cohen consigned his diamonds to Hope and Company who had a well-established network of customers throughout Europe and Russia, including Catherine the Great. Most likely, his diamonds were Brazilian, the most dominant source for diamonds at the time. He was London's leading diamond merchant (1781-1794). Records of his diamond business have disappeared from any London archive. However, record keepers have thoroughly documented his commerce in the archival collection of Hope and Company, the Amsterdam merchant banking establishment.<sup>[92]</sup>

Henry Hope, the elder, a Rotterdam merchant, went to Boston in about 1720, became a Freemason, a merchant and ultimately an international banker, after the Seven Years War (1756-1763) when he lent money to the governments of Sweden, Russia, Portugal and Bavaria. Hope later sent his Boston-born son, to London as an apprentice to Henry Hoare of Gurnell, Hoare, & Harman, England's oldest privately owned banking house with London headquarters on Fleet Street.<sup>[93]</sup> He then went to work for the family business in Amsterdam. By 1779, Henry, the younger, was managing Hope and Company. He went to London in 1794 to escape Napoleon's troops. There he collaborated with the founder of Baring Brothers and Company, England's oldest merchant bank, Francis Baring (1740-1810). Baring, a family originally from Germany, was a director and investor with the British East India Company. He promoted the company's monopoly and commercial interests. Baring and Hope worked on several huge land deals including the Louisiana Purchase, a transaction that took almost a decade to negotiate. Alexander Baring, the son of Francis, went to America as their financial agent.

Alexander Baring was a partner at Hope and Company that entered into the international banking business and maintained strong ties to the British East India Company. When Boston native Henry Hope died in 1811, Baring merged Hope and Company with Baring Brothers & Company. Henry Hope had been head of a consortium of English and Dutch investors that fronted the money. Hope had lent money to Portugal's King José. Portugal's Minister of the Kingdom (like a Prime Minister) was Sebastião José de Carvalho e Melo. He established civil statutes forbidding discrimination against New Christians, the Muslims and Jews. Subsequently, Henry Hope received an exclusive concession to market diamonds from Portugal's colony, Brazil, which they sold through Amsterdam, making that city Europe's diamond center. Henry Hope entertained John Adams, Thomas Jefferson and Benjamin Franklin when they visited Europe for trade negotiations.

In October 1806, Napoleon assaulted Prussia and Hesse and occupied Frankfurt. Prince Wilhelm fled to Schleswig-Holstein, the northernmost of the sixteen states of Germany, near the Danish border, where he had previously deposited some of his wealth with the aid of Mayer Rothschild who now had almost total control of Wilhelm's resources. Napoleon wanted to destroy the house of Hesse-Kassel. Rothschild had viewed control of Prince Wilhelm's resources as a stepping-stone and now it seemed that it was about to be destroyed. However, with every challenge, the Rothschilds seemed impenetrable and unmoved in their objectives. Napoleon, who had just defeated the Prussian army on October 14, 1806, would not alter their plans but would be another springboard. That is all the Rothschilds saw, steppingstones and springboards.<sup>[94]</sup>

In 1806, the U.S. government embargoed the exportation of raw materials to Britain. As a result, a crisis erupted in the English cotton industry in Manchester. Britain suspended operations in every cotton mill and thousands of laborers were suddenly unemployed and facing starvation.

On November 21, 1806, Napoleon, in the Edict of Berlin, closed all ports to English and colonial commodities because of England's total disregard for the accepted rules of naval warfare. He said, "The same law of war for the sea as for the land, which cannot be extended to private goods or non-

combatants, and that blockades must be limited to fortified places invested with competent force.” Napoleon justifiably believed that England was attempting to rule the world. He felt that anyone who dealt in English goods was an accomplice and was subject to arrest.<sup>[95]</sup> He asked Austria, Prussia, Sweden, Denmark and Russia to participate in the blockade. Because of this blockade, Nathan Rothschild chose to join forces with John Parish and Company, an important new partner. By the time that Rothschild started working with Parish, his sons, John, Charles and David Parish, had assumed the business.<sup>[96]</sup>

The House of Parish, since the early 1790s, had collaborated with Hope and Company of Amsterdam and Harman and Company in London, an old partner of Mayer Rothschild’s. By 1794, John Parish was transferring English subsidies to Prussia. During the 1790s, Parish had close connections with the England’s Board of Transport and provided English troops with money and commodities. Parish also supplied the Navy with ships to transport British soldiers to the West Indies. In 1806, Nathan Rothschild established a joint venture with Fermin de Tastet in which he was buying hides in Buenos Aires. By 1807, Rothschild, in cooperation with the Cohens, had begun direct trade with agents in the West Indian sugar islands.<sup>[97]</sup>

John and Charles Parish helped break the blockade and kept Nathan Rothschild fully informed about the circumstances on the continent. They organized secret transports of products to Frankfurt and shifted the bills of lading and money through correspondent banks in Rotterdam and Amsterdam.<sup>[98]</sup> The blockade escalated trade and profits for risk takers. Nathan had a fleet of ships at his disposal that he sent to the Dutch and north German coast. His brothers had assistants at Hamburg, Dunkirk, Amsterdam and an elaborate messenger service connected to London to keep track of all trade movements.<sup>[99]</sup>

On October 21, 1806, Levi Barent Cohen made a “Settlement” for his daughter and the “Solemnization” of her marriage. Nathan Rothschild, age twenty-nine and Hannah Cohen, age twenty-three were married on October 22, 1806. Levi Cohen transferred £3,248.14.06 in three percent Consolidated Bank Annuities (3% Consols) in the names of Joseph and Solomon Cohen, his sons, and Samuel Moses Samuel, who had married his daughter Esther in 1803. The trustees were to pay Hannah dividends, interest and annual produce from the 3% Consols “for her sole and separate use and benefit for and during the term of her natural life independent of said Nathan Mayer Rothschild.” This was not a dowry and did not enrich her husband as some people have claimed.<sup>[100]</sup>

Hannah’s father was the richest Jew in England and was associated with the Goldsmids, Mocattas, Montefiores and other important Jewish financiers in the City.<sup>[101]</sup> Nathan Rothschild’s youngest sister, Henrietta (Jette) would marry Abraham Montefiore in 1815.<sup>[102]</sup> He was the younger brother of Moses.<sup>[103]</sup> Moses and Abraham Montefiore made a fortune on the London Stock Exchange. Nathan and Moses founded the Alliance Insurance Company to rival Lloyds of London, founded in 1774. European stock exchanges (bourses), established in the seventeenth century, allowed governments to sell their loans (bonds) and mercantile trading companies to acquire additional cash for foreign ventures.<sup>[104]</sup>

Hannah Rothschild’s father, Levi Cohen died on March 11, 1808. Nathan Rothschild had as many business deals with Cohen as he did with his father, which was considerable. In 1809, his deals with Cohen amounted to £200,000. In 1810, the value of these transactions more than doubled to about £444,000.<sup>[105]</sup> Cohen’s brother, Salomon David Barent Cohen and his wife Sara Brandes were the great-grandparents of Karl Marx.

In 1808, Nathan Rothschild recognized an opportunity in the “rapidly rising market price for gold and silver” in England and Europe, caused by the probability of war between Britain and France. He positioned himself in the international specie and bullion trade.<sup>[106]</sup> Britain had to pay the costs of the troops they had sent to the Iberian Peninsula in 1808 – it amounted to one million pounds in specie, which diminished Britain’s gold reserves.<sup>[107]</sup>

On August 17, 1808, Nathan Rothschild moved his family from Manchester to London, to 12 Great Street, St. Helens Bishopgate Street. On November 22, 1808, Hannah had their second child, Lionel. In May or June 1809, they moved again to No. 2, New Court Street, St. Swithin's Lane that still houses Rothschild interests.<sup>[108]</sup> Nathan and Hannah had sons, Lionel Nathan Rothschild (1808-1879), Anthony Nathan de Rothschild (1810-1876), both of whom attended the University of Göttingen. Other sons included Nathaniel Rothschild (1812-1870) and Mayer Amschel de Rothschild (1818-1874) who studied at the University of Leipzig and at Heidelberg University. They also had daughters, Charlotte, Hannah and Louise.

In 1809, Wilhelm put £550,000, the largest amount of money transacted through the Rothschilds, into stocks, loans, or bonds in England. It was the apex of Nathan's business.<sup>[109]</sup> After Wilhelm's exile, Nathan Rothschild's enterprise surged. On February 17, 1809, Carl Buderus officially collaborated with Rothschild. Buderus, and now with a financial interest, pledged to advise the firm to the best of his ability. Rothschild, under his own name, invested Wilhelm's surplus funds, £550,000, in English Consolidated Stocks that elevated Nathan's credit standing with the City of London. Wilhelm, who had relocated to Prague, was satisfied with the returns and Nathan's lower commission rate. Rothschild was very adept at buying low and selling high.<sup>[110]</sup> The family fortune went from £80,000 in 1800 to £4,000,000 in 1825.<sup>[111]</sup> When Jacob (James) Rothschild visited London in October 1809, Rothschild made his younger brother a partner in the specie and bullion trade.<sup>[112]</sup>

By 1810, Rothschild had been shipping from £20,000 to £40,000 per month to Frankfurt during the blockade, with a 50% profit, with an annual total of about £100,000. He terminated his export business towards the end of 1810 due to a new French policy legalizing trade with England. Banking, much more lucrative, took the place of trading. Rothschild had purchased £800,000 of gold at a bargain price from the East India Company. Wellington's under-funded troops were in Portugal battling the French and were ready to give up for lack of funding. Rothschild agreed to sell the gold he had just acquired to the British government to keep the war going. Additionally, he transported it to Wellington via Jacob, who had gone to Paris in the spring of 1811 to establish a branch. The family had agents in Malta, Marseilles and Livorno, and other places.<sup>[113]</sup>

By the end of 1810, the family had maximized their profits from smuggling. On September 27, 1810, Mayer A. Rothschild announced the he was changing the name of his enterprise to Mayer Amschel Rothschild und Söhne. Mayer, Amschel, Salomon, Kalmann and Jacob Rothschild would hold the firm's shares. Nathan was not included as his work was more crucial – he had organized the smuggling and was developing the gold and bullion enterprise, which would grow exponentially. Contraband was just the beginning.<sup>[114]</sup>

By about 1810, through his alliance with Fermin de Taster & Company of London, Nathan Rothschild was shipping specie. He had clients in Curaçao, an island in the southern Caribbean Sea, off the Venezuelan coast and a constituent country of the Kingdom of the Netherlands and in St. Thomas, another island in the Caribbean Sea, who sent him doubloons, dollars, and gold bullion valued in thousands of English pounds sterling to pay for merchandise he had sent them. The English had seized the Danish islands in 1801 for about a year and again from 1807 to 1815. The Dutch East India Company established Curaçao as the center of the Caribbean slave trade as early as 1662. Merchants from the U.S., England, Italy, Germany, St. Thomas, Curaçao, Guadalupe, and Martinique moved to Puerto Rico by the time that Haiti occupied Santo Domingo (1822-1844). They forced landowners out and seized their land. The Rothschild's St. Thomas house established a branch in Santo Domingo around 1830 under the name of Rothschild and Cohen.<sup>[115]</sup>

The five Rothschild brothers set up banking houses in strategically located areas where compliant

politicians would accommodate the banker's objectives relative to a nation's money and credit. Nathan Rothschild had superior moneymaking skills and headed the London firm while James established a branch in Paris in 1812, the year his father died. They founded the firm of Rothschild Frères in Paris in 1817 and Karl founded a branch in Naples in 1821.<sup>[116]</sup> In 1811, Nathan sold his Manchester textile concerns in order to concentrate on becoming the Britain's principal financier. He allegedly provided the funds that guaranteed the victory at Waterloo. He had established a courier service that allowed the brothers to have daily communication, which gave them major advantages over their competitors.<sup>[117]</sup>

The British government selected Rothschild over Mocatta & Goldsmid and the Barings because Alexander Baring had loaned money to the U.S. to carry on what the British government called a "vindictive war" against them. Additionally, Rothschild had enough resources to satisfy the government's needs. Rothschild's extraordinary network surpassed the connections of any other British merchant banker who traded gold and bullion abroad. His brothers had the same power and influence in Amsterdam, Paris, Hamburg, and Frankfurt.<sup>[118]</sup>

On January 11, 1814, Nathan Rothschild received a lucrative contract with Britain to supply coinage to pay their troops who were fighting in the European balance-of-power playoff, the Napoleonic War. He financed both sides of the war. He was to deliver £600,000 in gold and silver French coin to Wellington's headquarters in the South of France.<sup>[119]</sup> From the family's huge network of cash-carrying couriers, he reportedly received prior knowledge about the outcome of the Battle of Waterloo. He manipulated bonds in the London Stock Exchange to create panic and frenzied selling and increased his fortune by 6,500 times.<sup>[120]</sup>

Nathan Rothschild had expanded his trade with Russia who needed foreign bullion and specie to satisfy the country's huge domestic war debts accrued from fighting against Napoleon. Britain, backed by Rothschild, had promised to subsidize the Russian military. Because of the depreciation of Russia's currency, Rothschild was able to increase his profit by more than 30% in that market.<sup>[121]</sup> From the days of Mayer A. Rothschild, the family obsessively accumulated gold and the family is evidently quite willing to acquire it by available method, even warfare and its subsequent plunder.

Britain's war with France ended on May 30, 1814 with the Treaty of Paris. England had to pay numerous subsidies to those who had aided in Napoleon's defeat. Nathan and his emissaries were indispensable in the transportation, delivery and exchange of large amounts of gold and specie across borders. Because of his resources and England's dependency upon Rothschild, he controlled the Bank of England and consequently the entire economy. Three years later, he orchestrated a cash-coup in France. Throughout the years, the Rothschilds and their agents have staged many worldwide catastrophic cash-coups. They altered their procedures and, for privacy, withdrew from the limelight, preferring to work through others, in their fleecing of corporations and countries.<sup>[122]</sup>

In addition to realigning the political borders of Europe at the conclusion of the Napoleonic Wars in 1814, the Rothschilds attempted to set up an organization to facilitate world governance during the Congress of Vienna held from November 1, 1814, to June 8, 1815, chaired by the Austrian diplomat Klemens Wenzel von Metternich. Czar Alexander I immediately rejected the idea of a governing organization as well as a private Rothschild bank in Russia. Nathan Rothschild proposed that those world leaders perpetually designate Switzerland, in the heart of Europe, as a neutral, sovereign territory. Geneva would also serve as the location of the four treaty conventions adjudicating international law regarding non-combatants and prisoners of war. Switzerland would provide the Rothschilds with a location from which to finance both sides of their population-depleting, debt-creating, orchestrated wars.<sup>[123]</sup> When the Czar rejected the plan, Nathan Rothschild vowed eventual retribution against the entire Romanov family.<sup>[124]</sup>

## Financing Industry

The Rothschilds financed Cecil Rhodes' diamond and gold monopoly in South Africa under the firms, De Beers Consolidated Mines and Consolidated Gold Fields. Baron Lionel de Rothschild underwrote the Crimean War Loan, loaned Britain £4 million to acquire Egypt's shares in the Suez Canal Company, to protect Britain's sea route to India. They funded the Royal Institute of International Affairs (the British version of the CFR) and the Roundtable Organization in 1891. The Rothschilds organized a copper operation after the collapse of the French Copper Syndicate in 1889. They seized control of the Boleo mine in Baja California and Rio Tinto, copper mines located in Spain and Bolivia. The Rothschilds awarded Herbert Hoover, a longtime agent, a directorship at Rio Tinto. They also controlled other mining interests in nickel, silver, and gold. They promoted the Triple Entente, an alliance between Britain, France, and Russia to oppose Germany and their developing interests.

The Rothschilds financed the Vanderbilt's and Harriman's Railroad interests, and Carnegie's steel industry. Édouard Alphonse James de Rothschild, head of the de Rothschild Frères bank, was a partner at BNP Paribas, a conglomerate of 400 of the 800 most important firms on the Paris stock exchange. It is the largest global banking group in the world and they have headquarters in Paris and in London. They own *Reuters*, the *Associated Press*, *Havas*, and *Wolff* and have controlling interests in NBC, CBS, and ABC. They are still gold agents for Britain and control the London Bullion Market Association. Beginning on Friday, September 12, 1919, The London Gold Fix has been a regular feature of the international gold market. On that day, the five gold pool members met for the first time, at N.M. Rothschild, in London. A Rothschild was the chairman until 2004.<sup>[125]</sup> Given their gold monopoly and their control of its value, I discourage personal gold investment. They have previously devalued their own currency and resources as a way of trading the product of your hard-earned labor for high-priced gold, a commodity that they totally control.

In 2004, N. M. Rothschild & Sons relinquished their position with regard to fixing the price of gold. Barclays Bank of Nova Scotia (Scotia Mocatta) assumed the leadership role in the process of fixing the world price of gold. It is currently a telephone process.<sup>[126]</sup>

## Control of the Banks

The substance of an international monetary system existed long before the emergence of the international gold standard in 1873. International bankers, such as the Rothschilds, established a global network of foreign exchange and precious metal arbitrage, which they operated from Paris and London. The international bankers had networks of correspondents who had "expertise in arbitrage," and who became the principal operators of bimetallism on a global level. They developed "service components" such as handling and transporting. They engaged in industrial pursuits such as melting and coining. They initially constructed the international monetary system that has persisted into the current decade, with agencies that have merged to create the money monopoly that governs world commerce.<sup>[127]</sup>

The House of Rothschild and especially Rothschild Frères was not the only bank to engage in bimetallic arbitrage but "bimetallism was a Rothschild business." The use of bullion emerged as the international exchange and control of the distribution of bullion accomplished a central function in achieving dominance over the international monetary system. The bank that possessed the most effectual organization for collecting and transporting bullion had a significant advantage over its competitors. It could arbitrage, using reduced profit margins and thereby capture a "larger part of the exchange market; it could buy and sell bills at rates which its rivals could not match, and so attract a bigger share of international clearing operations."<sup>[128]</sup>

Huibert Schijf, of the University of Amsterdam, wrote, "The present discourse on globalization often

seems to ignore that international commercial networks have already been in existence for a very long time. The networks of internationally operating Jewish bankers in the nineteenth century are an example to show how this worked in nineteenth century Europe.”<sup>[129]</sup>

By the early 1830s, the Rothschild brothers, positioned in strategic European capitals, were multi-national bankers who employed agents, correspondents and satellite-banking houses in other cities. In the Netherlands *Becker & Fuld* became a satellite-banking house in Amsterdam. *Moses Ezechiëls & Zoonen* operated a Rothschild correspondent bank in Rotterdam where they managed extensive business requests. Beginning in about 1830, the Rothschild had business dealings with M.M. Warburg & Co. in Hamburg. In Berlin, at about the same time, the Bleichröder bank functioned as an agent for the Rothschilds.<sup>[130]</sup>

N.M. Rothschild, between 1820 and 1830, utilized a commercial business network throughout Western Europe. The Rothschild brothers, led by Nathan, had access to information that others lacked, giving them the opportunity to make investments, and purchase bonds. Focusing on just one banking family is a disadvantage because so many others, using the same strategies, successfully devised their own interconnecting networks.<sup>[131]</sup>

The majority of the international financiers were Jewish bankers who originally came from Germany but maintained close communication with their agents, correspondents, commercial partners and family branches in Germany. Numerous families from Frankfurt sent their sons to European capitals like Amsterdam, Brussels, London, Paris and Vienna to establish banks. Sir Ernest Cassel, the personal banker to Edward VII, a Court Jew, collaborated with his friend, Jacob H. Schiff. Cassel was born in Cologne, Germany where his father Jacob Cassel owned a small bank. Ernest Cassel relocated to Liverpool. Adolph J. Rothstein was a manager of an the International Commercial Bank of Russia and the Russo-Chinese Bank in St. Petersburg at the time that James A. Stillman and numerous other bankers, J. Pierpont Morgan, E. H. Harriman, and Jacob H. Schiff, among others gave Rothstein an informal dinner party at the Metropolitan Club on June 20, 1900. They gathered, according to The New York Times, to discuss the Chinese question.<sup>[132]</sup>

Adolph J. Rothstein was born in Berlin, but he learned about banking in England. He and his assistants conducted the conversations with his Russian clients in French. Another important banker, of German origin, was Moritz Königswarter, son of Jonas Königswarter. He was an Austrian banker and philanthropist, originally from Fürth. He was a director of a great number of railroads and financial institutions; and he acted as consul-general for Denmark. Others included Salomon Rothschild (one of the five brothers) from Frankfurt; Zsigmond Kornfeld, who was born in the Czech town of Golčův Jeníkov, the grandson of Aharon Kornfeld, the last head of a yeshiva in Bohemia. Kornfeld, an employee of the Viennese *Creditanstalt* (Rothschild), managed a branch bank in Budapest. He gained banking experience with Thorsch in Prague. Karl Morawitz left a small town in Bavaria to join the *Banque de Paris et des Pays Bas* in Paris. In 1885, he went to Vienna where he was on the board of the Anglo-Austrian Bank in which both Ernest Cassel and Maurice de Hirsch had interests.<sup>[133]</sup>

Numerous Jewish bankers in the early 1800s descended from families that did not necessarily affiliate with banking but rather started as traders in precious items such as silver, gold or diamonds. Many of them, like Mayer A. Rothschild, functioned successfully in the specialized peripheral economy of money exchange. Others, the so-called court Jews, functioned as the financial managers of kings and princes, especially in Germany. During the nineteenth century, the industrial revolution transformed the financial pursuits of many bankers who began financing railway lines throughout Europe. Instead of financing government entities, they took on the responsibility of financing new industries. They also founded new banks, modeled after the French *Crédit Mobilier*. They typically did not act as moneylenders but as coordinators of loans. Alternatively, they participated in syndicates or networks wherein they managed

new bonds and stocks. They were traders in stocks and bonds and did not subject themselves to the potential personal loss of value-backed moneylending.<sup>[134]</sup>

## The Rothschild's Gold Operations

On August 5, 1572, settlers established Huancavelica, a city in Peru, as a Spanish colonial administrative district and the capital of the Huancavelica region. An Indian Nahuincopa, a servant of Jerónimo Luis de Cabrera, had discovered the metallic deposits in the mountains around 1542 and people built the city up around the mines. The area was the major source of quicksilver (mercury) in Spanish America and was critical to mining production in the colonial era. Mercury was essential to extract silver from the ores found in Peru's silver mines, as well as those in what is now Bolivia. Quicksilver extraction was dangerous and difficult and resulted in a high mortality rate, due to the arsenic vapors, but the mines were part of the economic pillar of Spain, along with the mercury deposits of Almadén, the largest quantity of liquid mercury metal in the world for at least 2,000 years. Miners almost exhausted the resources in Peru's Huancavelica mine by the early nineteenth century.

Gold refining had changed and by the 1820s, many chemical engineers patented new methods for effectively removing gold and silver found in ores. The owners of the refining factories, because they required substantial financial backing, made it a point to get along with the major bankers who would provide that financing.<sup>[135]</sup>

Mexico acquired their independence from Spain in 1821, which altered the composition of some facets in the Mexican economy. Without the strong presence of a central power, some government officials allowed private entrepreneurs, both Mexican and foreign, to create monopolies. Previously, the Spanish government supervised the quicksilver trade. However, after 1821, it fell into the hands of non-Mexican merchants. Researcher and writer, Alma Parra has documented the fact through the Rothschild Archives that N M Rothschild & Sons of London participated in the growth of mining activities in Mexico during the first half of the nineteenth century by their creation of business networks operating within Mexico. There were several mining regions in Mexico where mining interests had established workshops called *haciendas de beneficio* where workers extracted the silver from ore using chemicals, a process called amalgamation. In the colonial period, the workers also used quicksilver, which the Spanish acquired from the mines of Almadén in Spain, from Idria (in the Austro-Hungarian Empire) and from Huancavelica and other areas in Peru. Thereafter, they sent the extracted silver to the Mint where workers made coins.<sup>[136]</sup>

However, with Mexican independence in 1821, a mercury shortage combined with the consequential chaos from the European wars and the after effects of the War of Independence from Spain forced the emerging Mexican government to reorganize the mining industry and develop new sources of quicksilver.

<sup>[137]</sup> The Junta de Fomento, 1825-1827, a document related to Mexico, established guidelines for the political and economic issues regarding their territory, the current state of California. The bounty that Mexico offered was in conjunction with the Junta de Fomento. The Junta de Fomento launched a bounty for Mexican quicksilver, which did not increase gold mining costs.<sup>[138]</sup>

Both Spain and Mexico unwisely allowed private, foreign involvement in their economies. In Spain, the officials gave concessions to private companies to work the Almadén mines. Mexico had insufficient capital and yet they desperately needed to revitalize its mining operations, a great source of wealth. Therefore, they allowed a London-based joint-stock mining company to function in Mexico. This company managed the entire mining operation, both technical and administrative, using the latest mining innovations and equipment. British merchants and their supportive bankers controlled the quicksilver trade. During a two-decade period, the new methods became indispensable. These British merchants exploited the organizational void left by Spain.<sup>[139]</sup>

Mexico had vast natural resources but apparently lacked the finances and technology to develop them, perhaps because the country had been under the dominion of Spain for so long. In the early 1820s, after the profit-producing Napoleonic Wars, London bankers, such as Goldsmid and Barclays loaned money to the Mexican government through their local Mexican agents. At about that same time, the Rothschilds successfully acquired control of the distribution of quicksilver. In 1830, they procured a contract for the further development of the Almadén quicksilver mines, which helped them expand their business tentacles into Spain where they were soon engaged in the financial markets, buying up government debt, and investing in copper mining and railways. Meanwhile, the Austrian branch of the family assumed total control of the quicksilver market in Idria. In 1838, they obtained another contract in Almadén and then monopolized the quicksilver market until the discovery of the quicksilver mines in California.<sup>[140]</sup>

In 1827, in France, James de Rothschild had joined with others in founding a company to re-melt metals. In 1833, Michel Benoît Poisatin was in partnership with Saint-André in a gold refining business, a business so successful that it attracted the attention of the Rothschilds who controlled the concessions on quicksilver mines in Almadén, Spain, the greatest source of quicksilver, an essential component for refining both silver and gold. In 1835, the Rothschilds built a refining factory close to the Canal on the Quai de Valmy in Paris. In 1838, to cement their partnership, James Rothschild financed Poisat with 434,534.66 francs. The Quai de Valmy workshops functioned as a conveyance center for gold and other metals they constantly transferred between numerous countries. They purified and processed gold from Australia and California prior to delivery to the Mint in London. They often melted down coins from abroad at the Paris metal refining operation.<sup>[141]</sup>

Between 1700 and 1800, production at the Almadén and Idria mines was consistent. Then the Rothschild cartel assumed ownership and control of the two quicksilver mines in about 1830 and for the next fifty years, evidence seems to indicate that the cartel methodically decreased the productivity of the mines. Whether the lower production rates were intentional on the part of the cartel or simply a coincidence is unknown. However, given the history of manipulation of prices and production in other resources, it appears that it was intentional. The cartel, wanting a monopoly, attempted to negotiate an arrangement with the mine producers in California to reduce their yield of product.<sup>[142]</sup>

Eustace Barron was the British Counsel to Mexico before Alexander Forbes who had written extensive descriptions of Mexican California, with accounts of California's agriculture and landscape. Forbes authored a book, *California: A History of Upper and Lower California* (1839). He had been a merchant in Tepic, Mexico. He suggested that Britain seize control of California in return for forgiving Mexico's debt to the British government. Instead, to exploit the area's resources, the two men formed Barron, Forbes and Company of Tepic, Mexico.<sup>[143]</sup>

The Rothschilds did not have success using local agents who typically tried to exploit their position. Therefore, in 1843, the Rothschilds sent a cousin, Lionel Davidson, to represent their interests in Mexico City and to develop an extensive network for the distribution of quicksilver (mercury). He began sending reports to the London firm that summer. Nathaniel Davidson, Lionel's brother, had responsibility for several Rothschild businesses in South America, especially in Chile. He also journeyed along the Pacific coast and transmitted relevant information, regarding mining to London. When Andrés Castillero discovered the quicksilver mine, later called New Almadén mine in California, Nathaniel Davidson informed his Rothschild relatives. Additionally, he alerted them about the discovery of gold at Sutter's Mill.<sup>[144]</sup>

Absent the California quicksilver mines, it is certain that the Rothschild cartel would have demanded and received higher prices for their product. Josiah Dwight Whitney (1819-1896), an American geologist, and chief of the California Geological Survey (1860–1874), indicated that the cost of quicksilver in Mexico

in 1844 was three times as high as it was in 1777, apparently because of the monopoly. Certainly, the cartel would have increased its profits with the gold and silver boom.<sup>[145]</sup>

Andrés Castillero, captain of the permanent cavalry, had discovered a mine of cinnabar in 1845, located near San Jose in the Santa Cruz Mountains on the coast of California, then under Mexican jurisdiction. Further, he and Jose Reyes Berreyesa, retired sergeant of the Presidio Company of San Francisco discovered a vein of silver and one of gold, in the same area. Later, in a court case, he produced witnesses to verify his story on December 3, 1845. On December 30, 1845, in the Court House of San Jose Guadalupe, he received legal possession of the mine from the magistrate of that jurisdiction. Thereafter, officials presented the record of his mining possession to the Junta de Fomento y Administracion de Minería, who legalized it. On May 20, 1846, the Executive confirmed it as his possession and granted him “two square leagues” on the surface of his mining possession. On May 23, they issued Castillero a patent of title with which he began to take possession, but war erupted which prevented him from taking possession. Castillero acquired a perfect title stating that he and his grantees held possession of the mine since 1845, and expended large sums of money on it.<sup>[146]</sup>

Because Castillero lacked additional financing, he sought help from the British bankers, Barron, Forbes and Company, already doing business in Mexico. The bank took out a sixteen-year lease on the mining operation and named it New Almaden, after the mercury mine at Almadén, Spain. The mine was about fifty-six miles southeast of San Francisco and approximately twelve miles away from San Jose. One ton of ore generated about seventy-five pounds of quicksilver.<sup>[147]</sup> Full production at the quicksilver mine began in 1850, presumably with some kind of an agreement between Castillero, Barron and Forbes. Between 1850 and 1900, the New Almaden mine produced about half of the world’s supply, exceeding the production of the mines of Almadén and Idria. By the 1870s, California mines produced two-thirds of the world’s output. Consequently, this new mine broke the Rothschild’s monopoly of mercury. After 1890, the New Almaden mine declined; apparently, the miners had extracted all of the cinnabar.<sup>[148]</sup>

By the mid-1830s, some key customers complained about Rothschild’s high prices and they attempted to locate other sources of mercury. Mexico was in constant chaos because of the war in Texas and other issues. Additionally, the need for quicksilver increased with the new discoveries of silver in a couple of areas in Mexico in the late 1840s and early 1850s. Lionel Davidson was able to meet those needs because of his distribution network. Therefore, the Rothschilds controlled the quicksilver market and its price, despite Davidson’s concerns to his superiors in London that, to retain the market, that prices should be reasonable, particularly in view of new competition. The Rothschilds monopoly ended in the late 1840s with the local discoveries of quicksilver and the recent opening of other mines. The most significant factor in their decreasing international monopoly was the mines of New Almadén in California, controlled through a company established by Barron and Forbes, who set up their main office in the Port of San Blas in Western Mexico. They had a ready supply of quicksilver.<sup>[149]</sup>

On January 21, 1848, James Alexander Forbes, one of the complainants in a later U.S. Supreme Court case regarding the New Almadén, and a partner in Barron, Forbes & Company filed papers in Tepic, Mexico and procured a witness who assured the court that he knew the Senor Vice Consul, Don James Alexander Forbes. This witness knew Forbes when he was a resident of Tepic. Forbes’s witness signed affidavits on March 15, 1850. However, Forbes did not produce claimant papers until August 18, 1856 after he appealed to the District Court. Yet, the papers he presented later differed in some very essential aspects. On November 6, 1856, Forbes introduced other items, including a certificate dated August 13, 1846.<sup>[150]</sup>

Henry W. Halleck returned from France in 1844 where he had been to study European fortifications and the French military, along with studying mining laws. During the Mexican-American War (1846-1848),

his superiors assigned West Point-educated Henry W. Halleck (1815-1872) to California. Later they transferred him further north where he worked under General Bennet Riley, the Governor General of the California Territory. Riley appointed Halleck, an attorney, as military Secretary of State, which made him the governor's representative at the 1849 convention in Monterey where Halleck functioned as the principal architect of the California state constitution, which officials adopted in November 1849.<sup>[151]</sup>

In the spring of 1850, Lt. Henry W. Halleck, the future senior Union Army commander in the Western Theater, became the Director General of the New Almaden's mining operation for which he received \$500 a month. He oversaw the construction of brick structures as a replacement for the wooden buildings. While he supervised many of the activities at the mine, John Young managed the day-to-day operations. In addition to his regular salary as the Director General, Halleck's law firm was the legal representative for the mining firm with a \$30,000 retainer. In 1857, the mine made \$1,622,325 with expenses of \$280,000. During its years of operation, the New Almaden mine generated a million flasks of quicksilver worth between \$50,000,000 and \$75,000,000.<sup>[152]</sup>

The Rothschilds were willing to go to great lengths to acquire the resources they wanted in order to control the distribution, price and general availability of a particular product, especially basic items that people have become accustomed to using, owning, eating or drinking. The Rothschilds had enjoyed a virtual world monopoly of the quicksilver market. The gold rush and the silver from the Comstock mines increased the price and the demand for quicksilver. The Mexican government offered a "bounty," included in the Junta de Fomento, when quicksilver escalated to \$150 for a small container, prior to the discoveries in California and Nevada, which increased the demand for quicksilver. In 1850, after miners initiated quicksilver mining at New Almaden, people sold a flask (76.07 pounds) of quicksilver for about \$100. However, without the new quicksilver mine in California, Rothschild could set the price and demand as much as \$150 per flask, or more.<sup>[153]</sup>

The discovery of the California quicksilver mine coincided with the decrease of production at Huancavelica and the Rothschild domination over Almadén and Idria. On the other hand, the demand for quicksilver increased with the discovery of gold and silver in the latter half of the nineteenth century. The world production of silver and gold dramatically increased after 1850.<sup>[154]</sup>

Benjamin Davidson, son of Meyer Davidson, was a Rothschild agent in San Francisco by 1848-1849 because of the most recent gold discovery in that state. Meyer Davidson of Amsterdam was Nathan's brother-in-law as he had married Jessy Barent Cohen in 1816. She was Hannah Barent Rothschild's sister.<sup>[155]</sup> By 1852, Rothschild agents, in Mexico, shipped specie to N.M. Rothschild and managed the quicksilver shipments within Mexico.<sup>[156]</sup> Many Jews went to the west coast and served as intermediaries between California, the eastern states and Europe. Efficient and loyal agents, undoubtedly very well paid, managed all of the important transactions. In addition to Davidson, the Lazard brothers established a banking house in San Francisco.<sup>[157]</sup> In 1880, the London Rothschilds would replace their own California financial agency with the Bank of California.<sup>[158]</sup>

James Rothschild developed mining interests in California and Australia. His many agents sent gold bullion, dust and nuggets to Rothschild in Britain. In 1851, after the gold discoveries in California and Australia, the British government actually leased their Royal Mint's refining plant to Anthony de Rothschild of N. M. Rothschild. Ernest Seyd, one of their agents, said in 1868, "There are four of five large refineries in London, which almost exclusively share between them the refining of banker's bullion. Two of these establishments are worked in connection with eminent Foreign Banking Firms." Rothschild and H. L. Raphael's Refinery were renowned as two of the best gold refiners in the world.<sup>[159]</sup> For more than a century the Royal Mint Refinery, the primary gold agent to the Bank of England, refined a range of metals – gold, silver and copper. Engelhard Industries bought the Mint in 1967. The Rothschild family

made certain that their agents destroyed the majority of the records that they created during the time that they controlled the Mint. The name Engelhard was as significant as the names Oppenheimer and Rothschild were in the gold industry.<sup>[160]</sup>

Nathaniel Davidson focused on exporting silver while actively engaging in the bond trade with Mexican government bonds. He helped facilitate the British Convention Fund, a vehicle in which many British creditors exploited the economic situation in Mexico. Lionel Davidson, in addition to supplying quicksilver, made personal as well as Rothschild investments in some of the local mines. Within a year of his arrival, he began investing in several mining operations. In 1853, Lionel Davidson died and Nathaniel Davidson assumed full responsibility for the Mexican operation. With his death, Nathaniel developed additional mining interests for the Rothschilds. While their quicksilver business diminished, they retained their financial interests in the mines of El Oro. Additionally, through their French branch, they invested in El Boleo, in Baja California.<sup>[161]</sup>

Meanwhile, individuals shipped the gold from the west to eastern U.S. ports and then to Britain. While the Chinese obtained adequate amounts of quicksilver, they received negligible amounts of gold. However, the discovery of silver in Nevada (then western Utah Territory) in 1858 altered economic issues. California silver producers shipped massive amounts of silver to China from San Francisco. Over half of what they exported was comprised of Mexican silver dollars, utilized extensively in China. The movement of silver to China had continued over a period of three centuries. Because gold was so plentiful in California, for export to Europe and for domestic use, people favored the exportation of silver to China. There was sufficient gold and silver to meet everyone's needs. In conjunction with the California gold boom, people wanted to maintain the established trade patterns to Asia.<sup>[162]</sup>

Producers required quicksilver to process the precious metals so abundant in the western United States. They did not need quicksilver for some of the purest gold but mercury amalgamation significantly improved the proficiency of recovery and miners found it imperative after they had depleted the early, rich deposits. Miners could not easily recover gold from hard rock ores and found it almost impossible without quicksilver. This was applicable in the refining of silver. Mercury amalgamation was literally the only realistic technique possible until miners invented the cyanide procedure in the 1890s but of course, that process had many environmental disadvantages. By providing western mills with mercury, California quicksilver mines facilitated gold and silver production in the west.<sup>[163]</sup>

California production of quicksilver for gold and silver recovery created competition for Rothschild's quicksilver operations at Almadén and Idria, mines that had enabled the House of Rothschild to enjoy a monopoly. However, he would have to double his production in order to supplant California quicksilver. This was an impossibility for several reasons, one of which was the age of the mines at Almadén and Idria. Irrespective of Rothschild's desires and avid materialism, he did not own the mines in California and the people who controlled them were not going to surrender them.<sup>[164]</sup>

A legal battle ensued which finally ended up in the U.S. Supreme Court. The Justices ultimately ruled against Andrés Castillero.<sup>[165]</sup> As it turns out, after all of the witnesses and the paperwork that Andrés Castillero produced, the original documents, somehow were misplaced or lost. Some of this information, according to the court records includes, "A considerable portion of this voluminous record is occupied by evidence of the statements and declarations of Castillero himself. Besides his own declarations made to Colonel Fremont, letters written by him to General Vallejo and Governor Pio Pico; letters of Pico addressed to persons in Mexico; a letter from Manuel Castro to Pico; dispatches from Mr. Larkin, United States Consul at Monterey, to Mr. Buchanan, then Secretary of State."<sup>[166]</sup> Mr. Buchanan is James Buchanan; he was Secretary of State from March 10, 1845 – March 7, 1849.

The discovery of the New Almaden mine occurred before the Mexican-American War and fell under the Spanish-Mexican land and mining law. Despite this, on March 10, 1863, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that the mine was on federal property. On May 6, 1863, Interior Secretary John P. Usher, supported by Attorney General Edward Bates, offered a unique arrangement to Samuel E Butterworth, president of the Quicksilver Mining Company, one of the New Almaden's claimants. The government would allow Butterworth to lease the property and mine the resources but he would have to relinquish a third of the profit accrued from the mine to the government each year of the lease. If they struck a bargain, Leonard Swett, an Illinois attorney and friend of Lincoln, would take "immediate possession of the mine" and manage it. President Lincoln signed an eviction order against Andrés Castillero.<sup>[167]</sup> On June 29, 1863, Swett and Butterworth arrived in California and handed the presidential order to the mine supervisor. They also summoned General George Wright and some federal troops to guarantee their seizure of the property. A group of soldiers from Company F, Second Cavalry, California Volunteers, left for San Jose "fully prepared for active service."<sup>[168]</sup>

In 1869, the Rothschilds purchased the Martin firm from the refiner, H. L. Raphael who had ventures in both London and Paris. The Rothschilds then collaborated with Raphael for specific contracts, both in London and Paris, in the 1870s when it appeared profitable to do so. There were a number of refineries in London, which supplied the Bullion Market with an ample amount of gold. Previously, Britain's official Mint refined gold but they sold that part of their operations to Sir Anthony Rothschild, who owned one of the largest private refineries.<sup>[169]</sup>

Rothschild's profits would have increased, regardless of the gold supply. Miners readily "switched between" Rothschild and California quicksilver producers. However, the California producers at New Almaden acquired the Chinese market when they undercut Rothschild prices in China. Until 1884,

Rothschild interests in Spain and private and U.S. government interests in California contended in the profitable worldwide quicksilver market. In 1884, Rothschild recaptured the China market through a vigorous price battle. The Rothschilds were willing to cut profits to retain control.<sup>[170]</sup> There was a sharp decline in the quantity of California exports to China in 1884. After the California producers lost the majority of the China market because of Rothschild's price war, they never recovered it. This created a lengthy period of economic hardship for California quicksilver producers.<sup>[171]</sup>

"China was the largest market, taking 43.4 per cent of California exports. Mexico took 37.1 per cent and South America 11.0 per cent. China and Mexico combined accounted for more than 80 per cent of California quicksilver exports. California quicksilver exports were almost entirely a Pacific phenomenon."<sup>[172]</sup>

Mexico and her nationals intended to develop quicksilver mining at New Almadén to serve the economic needs of the Mexican and South American gold mines. The Chinese soon became their key customer. The Mexicans exported more quicksilver to Asia than they utilized domestically. Additionally, California quicksilver expedited the movement of U.S. and Mexican gold and silver into the worldwide market. The Rothschild cartel, which until then, held a monopoly, viewed this as unwanted and dangerous competition to their objectives. The Rothschilds waged a battle against his competition in the Pacific. After 1884, the battle involved the world quicksilver market and was not limited to the Pacific.<sup>[173]</sup>

Miners used California mercury (quicksilver) to extract both gold and silver from ore. Between 1850 and 1900, the California mercury mines supplied half the world's mercury. It was an essential ingredient to gold and silver processing in California, until they developed the cyanide process in the 1890s. The California quicksilver discovery predictably decreased quicksilver prices, which the Rothschild cartel had previously controlled. This has serious consequences for people who lived in California, especially the indigenous population. A small population of whites in California had an undeveloped economy, but a peaceful lifestyle, until the gold boom. Mining activities generated a need for people who could supply wheat, cattle and sheep. The population grew and people developed new industry, especially mining equipment, to meet the needs of the miners and an increasing population. California's economy invigorated the economy of the Pacific Rim, and offered an expanding market for western producers, including China and Australia.<sup>[174]</sup>

## **A Foundation of Greed, Globalism and Banking**

"Government has been the indispensable handmaiden of private wealth since the origin of society."<sup>[175]</sup>

In 1780, people considered William Bingham (1752–1804), a Federalist, as the richest man in America. He made a veritable fortune in trading, shipping, corrupt currency exchanges and war profiteering. Robert Morris used Bingham's ships as privateers in the Caribbean during the American Revolution. After the revolution, he and Alexander Hamilton amassed all the worthless Continental currency they could and redeemed it at par. He acquired two million acres of land in New York and Maine from William Duer and General Henry Knox, Washington's first War Secretary, a Freemason and the first secretary of the Society of the Cincinnati. People referred to it as "Bingham's Million Acres." He willed it to his five daughters.<sup>[176]</sup>

In 1781, Bingham helped found the Bank of North America, the nation's first private commercial bank. Morris, an associate of Hamilton, persuaded Congress to charter Bingham's bank. The bank, located in Pennsylvania, operated from January 7, 1782 until 1785 when its charter expired. After that, it functioned under other names. To fund this private bank, Morris had borrowed about \$30 million in gold, silver and bills of exchange from the Netherlands and France.

Bingham became a U.S. Senator (1795-1801). On August 23, 1798, his daughter, Anne Louisa, married

English financier Alexander Baring. Bingham's investments of gold bars helped finance Thomas Jefferson's 1802 Louisiana Purchase from Napoleon, under the direction of Baring Brothers of London. Significantly, England was then at war with France. Baring Brothers set up U.S. offices and became correspondents of the Bank of the United States. A correspondent bank performs services for another financial institution located elsewhere. The Bank of the United States handled all treasury and government business.<sup>[177]</sup>

The value of imports into New York City in 1790 was about \$1.4 million. By 1807, they had increased to \$7.6 million, almost double the imports through Philadelphia. During the same period, the value of exports increased from \$2.5 million to \$26 million. By the 1820s, the customs duties collected in New York funded the entire federal government except for the interest on the national debt. One third of the country's exports and half of its imports went through the Port of New York.<sup>[178]</sup>

Despite seceding from England, political differences and tariffs, the U.S. and Britain maintained mutually beneficial financial connections. The U.S. was one of Britain's principal customers – 16% of Britain's domestic produce and manufactured goods between 1820 and 1830 arrived at U.S. ports. This merchandise comprised 43% of the total imports into America. Thirty-six per cent of America's domestic exports went to England between 1820 and 1830. The southern states supplied 80% of the cotton used in Lancashire.<sup>[179]</sup>

## Rothschild Agents

Anglo-American merchant banks financed many U.S. enterprises. Private merchant bankers, as opposed to commercial banks, played a key role in the U.S. economy for decades. Merchant banks serve large companies, governments and very wealthy clients. Commercial banks are normally accessible to anyone needing basic banking needs. States did not charter merchant banks; they used their own capital and were not required to reveal their financial status.<sup>[180]</sup> The larger banking houses, like Baring and Rothschild had U.S. agents in strategic areas to represent their interests.

The J.L. & S. Joseph and Company and the R. & I. Phillips, both established as Rothschild bankers working in the U.S., struggled during the economic crisis of 1837, which contributed to the orchestrated financial collapse of other firms. Rothschild sacrificed their agent J.L. & S. Joseph and Company and allowed them to go bankrupt. Rothschild then financed August Schönberg and their secret partner, George Peabody of London.<sup>[181]</sup> Peabody went to England in 1837, during the panic, and co-founded a banking and brokerage house with fellow American, Junius S. Morgan, father of John Pierpont Morgan. The firm was called George Peabody and Co. J. P. Morgan was their New York agent.<sup>[182]</sup> When Junius died in 1890, his son assumed control of the company and moved its headquarters to New York.<sup>[183]</sup>

## August Schönberg, Alias August Belmont



August Schönberg was born on December 8, 1813 in the village of Alzey, Rhenish Palatinate region of Germany. His father, Simon, was a community leader and the local synagogue's president. August's mother died when he was seven. Less than a year later, he went to Frankfurt, 40 miles north to attend the Jewish school during which time he lived with his grandmother, Gertrude and her husband, Hajun Hanau, who had business and family links to the Rothschilds. In 1828, August left school as his father had fallen

behind in the tuition. His relatives persuaded the Rothschilds to allow August to become an apprentice at their Frankfurt branch where he learned the banking business from the ground up – dusting, sweeping and running errands. He had a private tutor who instructed him in French, English, composition and arithmetic. By 1834, he was a clerk and a courier.<sup>[184]</sup>

In the midst of the Panic of 1837, the Rothschilds sent Schönberg to Havana to investigate the affairs of the Spanish Government and check their Cuban investments, sugar production and distribution. He arrived in New York City and remained to salvage and increase their investments in New York City, the dominant metropolitan center on the continent since 1800. Schönberg changed his name to Belmont, a French variation, due to growing anti-Semitism.<sup>[185]</sup>

The Rothschilds lost money with the Panic of 1837 because the government could not completely pay its debts, which did not endear the country to the bankers. The Rothschilds, the French and English branches, had invested funds in numerous businesses, banks and municipal bond issues in the U.S. and had lost money when those businesses failed.<sup>[186]</sup> Numerous states experienced an economic crisis when Jackson did not re-charter the Second Bank of the United States in 1836. Delaware Senator Clayton had warned that economic ruin would follow the Bank's demise. States had depended on the Bank for their bond issues. Eight states, unable to pay the interest on their loans, defaulted: Arkansas, Indiana, Illinois, Louisiana, Maryland, Michigan, Mississippi, and Pennsylvania and the Florida Territory. People's distrust of foreign financiers, like the Rothschilds, contributed to the states resistance to paying interest.<sup>[187]</sup>

Rothschild protégé, August Schönberg arrived in America in 1837 and ultimately opened August Belmont and Company on Wall Street, a private unchartered bank, which remained a subsidiary of N. M. Rothschild of London until 1925. He became active in New York society and later became the de facto head of the Democratic Party (1860-1884). He was instrumental in preventing Europe's recognition and funding of the Confederacy during Lincoln's War.<sup>[188]</sup> He began an aggressive competition with Baring Brothers for additional U.S. business.<sup>[189]</sup> He created a foundation on which to establish a Rothschild dynasty.<sup>[190]</sup> Within a short time, Belmont, because of his access to massive financial resources, attracted the White House's attention and he began advising the President on financial concerns. The Rothschild's agent now had influence where it really mattered.<sup>[191]</sup>

Belmont was the fiscal agent for the U.S. government during the Mexican War (1846-1848) from which Rothschild made profits. On November 7, 1849, Belmont married Caroline Slidell Perry, the daughter of Commodore Matthew Perry, a Freemason. Aaron H. Palmer, another Rothschild agent operating in the U.S. suggested that Japan should be open to U.S. interests. Accordingly, Commodore Perry arrived in Japan on July 8, 1853 and demanded permission to present President Fillmore's letter, drafted by Secretary of State Edward Everett.<sup>[192]</sup> If the Japanese resisted, Perry was prepared to use military force. He would return to Japan to sign the Convention of Kanagawa, dated March 31, 1854, which opened the ports of Shimoda and Hakodate to U.S. trade, ending Japan's 200-year policy of preferred seclusion.

Belmont's ready access to Rothschild, along with his family connections led to his heavy involvement into politics. In 1851, John Slidell, his wife's uncle, tried to secure the upcoming Democratic presidential nomination for Secretary of State James Buchanan of Pennsylvania. To win the nomination, Buchanan needed to win New York State. At Slidell's urging, Belmont agreed to head Buchanan's New York campaign. Despite his hard work, he lost the 1852 nomination to Franklin Pierce."<sup>[193]</sup> He had also financed Pierce. Either way, Belmont, by financing opposing campaigns, would position a Rothschild minion in the White House.

Franklin Pierce won the election and appointed Belmont as U.S. Minister to the Netherlands (1853-1857) during which time he negotiated trade and extradition treaties and opened the Dutch East Indies to U.S. trade. He also helped draft the 1854 Ostend Manifesto, a plan to seize Cuba from Spain for U.S.

annexation.

On March 4, 1857, Benjamin Disraeli, Lionel de Rothschild and James Mayer de Rothschild and other relatives attended the London wedding of Lionel's daughter, Leonora de Rothschild to Mayer Alphonse de Rothschild, son of Betty and James Mayer de Rothschild, head of the Paris branch. At a lavish banquet, following the ceremony, Disraeli gave a lengthy toast honoring the parents wherein he included the statement, "Under this roof are the heads of the name and family of Rothschild a name famous in every capital of Europe and every division of the globe a family not more regarded for its riches than esteemed for its honor, integrity and public spirit."<sup>[194]</sup> Evelina de Rothschild, another daughter of Lionel and Charlotte de Rothschild, married on June 7, 1865 and died the following year during childbirth. Following the festivities, the family and their close cronies possibly discussed the last minute details of the imminent warfare in the U.S.

While the family and their associates may have discussed America and her coming tragedy, agitators, educators, self-righteous northern religionists and hate-spewing novelist propagandists – all agents or useful idiots for the bankers, had laid the tactics and foundation for the disruption of the country decades before. They strategically positioned them long before 1857. Belmont's personal records substantiate the London meeting of 1857. He did his part as a kingmaker, without regard for political party. His notes admit, "The goal of the conspiracy was to split the United States into several warring parts." He prepared to provide the financial needs of both sides, at exorbitant interest rates.<sup>[195]</sup>

No one could have persuaded the isolationist U.S. to engage in a foreign war so they would never be in a position to approach the Rothschilds or their associates for a massive loan. There remained another alternative – an internal battle. The biggest challenge was to provoke dissension.<sup>[196]</sup> It might take generations to develop such internal animosity. They strategically positioned agent provocateurs like Thomas Cooper who became the president of South Carolina College in 1821 where he influenced future state politicians. Officials with Freemason connections promoted legislation designed to create division and hostility between the two distinctly different sections of the country. Caleb Cushing, a Freemason, from Boston, was the chair of the Democratic National Convention beginning in Charleston, South Carolina on April 23, 1860.<sup>[197]</sup>

### Aaron H. Palmer, Rothschild Agent

Lawyer Aaron H. Palmer, director of the American and Foreign Agency for Claims, had a Wall Street office during the first half of the nineteenth century. In 1825, the Central American Republic, comprised of several Central American countries, had asked the U.S. government for assistance in the construction of a canal through Nicaragua. Henry Clay, then Secretary of State, favored the proposal. In early 1826, the Federation contracted with Palmer for the construction of the canal but he was personally unable to acquire adequate financing.<sup>[198]</sup>

On June 14, 1826, he continued his negotiations with the Nicaraguan government over the construction of the canal. Without personal resources, Palmer had no way of financing a canal. Therefore, he contacted DeWitt Clinton, the individual who promoted and ultimately facilitated the building of the Erie Canal. He also approached other New York capitalists in an attempt to get financial backing. However, he failed to acquire the funding and had to allow the concession to lapse. At that time, most people strongly opposed infrastructure development funded by the government so he could not get financial aid from the government.<sup>[199]</sup> Clinton had proposed the Erie Canal. The Van Buren administration built it using state bonds after Congress quickly passed it with the influence of Clinton's Tammany Hall cronies. Clinton was a Grand Master in the Morning Star Masonic Lodge No. 290, which Freemason officials warranted on June 5, 1817; Clinton signed the warrant.<sup>[200]</sup>

Individuals first proposed the construction of a canal in 1807. Entrepreneur Jesse Hawley, a flour merchant, went bankrupt attempting to ship grain from western New York to the eastern seaboard. He had strong support from Joseph Ellicott, an agent for the Holland Land Company in Batavia. This company had purchased two-thirds of the western New York land tract, called the Phelps and Gorham Purchase, also known as The Holland Purchase. The Holland Land Company, an unincorporated syndicate, consisted of thirteen Dutch investors living in Amsterdam. Being foreigners, they placed funds in the hands of certain trustees in the U.S. to invest in land in central and western New York and western Pennsylvania. The syndicate intended to sell the land quickly and profitably. Instead, they had to make costly improvements such as building roads and canals to make it more appealing to settlers. Ellicott recognized that a canal would increase the land value. Hawley approached New York Governor DeWitt Clinton and sold him on the idea. Clinton, despite great opposition, appropriated \$7 million for the canal's construction, accomplished by recent immigrants from Ireland. The canal was under construction (1817-1825) and officially opened on October 26, 1825. Ellicott became the first canal commissioner.

New York Governor DeWitt Clinton encouraged Palmer who then went to Europe (1826-1827) as an agent of the American Atlantic and Pacific Canal Company (associated with the Panama Canal). He catered to individuals interested in trade with Europe by managing all of the paperwork involved with transnational business. He purchased newspaper advertisements claiming that he had global commerce experience and contacts with European bankers.<sup>[201]</sup> In 1832, he advertised in the Guayaquil newspaper *El Colombiano*, offering his commercial services in developing business between New York and Guayaquil.<sup>[202]</sup>

By February 1837, when the credit market tightened, Palmer had already developed a relationship with N. M. Rothschild & Sons. He supplied them with an account of all the financial failures, as many as 280, in the months just before the final crash. He was in the collections business. With all the bankruptcies, insolvencies, and failures, his business was booming. He offered his services, as needed, to the Rothschilds. He was very optimistic about commercial growth.<sup>[203]</sup> Presumably, people with funds picked up property using pennies on the dollar. The Rothschilds dumped their New York agents, J.L. & S. Josephs and replaced them with Palmer. The financial crisis thrust U.S. markets and England into a panic. Palmer functioned as a Rothschild correspondent until they sent Schönberg. Then they used him in another capacity.<sup>[204]</sup>

In 1838 and 1839, Palmer traveled throughout Europe with letters of introduction and credit from N M Rothschild and Sons, in an effort to gather data about trade, particularly about the Asian nations. He submitted his findings to the Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs in the House of Representatives. In the 1840s, he circulated commercial, social, cultural and governmental information about numerous Asian locations and developed a reputation as an expert in commercial expansion in the East. He expanded his own associations and correspondent network. He sent samples of U.S. cottonseed to Manila and encouraged Chinese emigration after the California gold discovery in 1848.<sup>[205]</sup>

Palmer, a Whig and an early globalist, recommended a plan to the Rothschilds for a national bank in the United States, a non-partisan institution that deliberately avoided the official designation of a central bank, like the Bank of the United States (BUS), which Jackson and the Democrats had thoroughly vilified. His plan for U.S. business, similar to the Rothschild's plan, transcended national and political borders. His dispatches warned the Rothschilds about the pending problems between Mexico and the U.S. regarding Texas, a huge issue that might hinder trade.<sup>[206]</sup>

Palmer, the proverbial publicist, had developed some trade relations in China. By 1842, his New York commission house distributed promotional material about U.S. manufacturers throughout Asia. He sent U.S. newspapers and book catalogues with the assistance of some Dutch traders. In 1845, he persuaded a

congressional representative to introduce a House resolution petitioning for commercial treaties with Japan and Korea. He inundated President Polk, Congress and the public with pleas and promises urging additional contacts with Asia, Russia, and India. He proclaimed the virtues of Japanese commerce and culture, along with their natural resources. He promoted a ship canal across Central America.<sup>[207]</sup> According to the *New York Times* of June 9, 1852, he managed to acquire the position of Consul-General of the Republic of Ecuador for the U.S.<sup>[208]</sup>

Palmer, the chief publicist for new trade, understood the reward of expansionism, advocated commercial trade, and offered his services to others who had like-minded objectives. He helped shape U.S. perceptions of distant places. He became America's leading expert on Asian trade and a big proponent of Commodore Perry's Japanese mission.<sup>[209]</sup> Between 1846 and 1851, he communicated with members of the House and three Presidents and Secretaries of State, providing them with "valuable public documents" about "several of the comparatively unknown maritime nations of the East. His efforts proved to be of great interest to our government in extending commercial relations in several eastern countries."<sup>[210]</sup>

Palmer suggested the expediency of establishing a U. S. Naval Station in the Indian Archipelago. This occurred over 100 years later when the U.S. seized and depopulated Diego Garcia.<sup>[211]</sup> On January 10, 1848, he promoted, to President Polk, the commercial potentials of Siberia, Manchuria, and the Asiatic Islands of the Northern Pacific Ocean. He elaborated on the Siberian gold mines and the silkworm products of Manchuria. He was also impressed with the Island of Saghalien, the Japanese settlements on Aniva Bay, Langles bay, Estaing bay, Jonquiere Bay, Patience bay, and Nadeshda Bay.<sup>[212]</sup>

Americans exploited Asia but Asians did not exploit, colonize or conquer the U.S. Asia was a good marketplace for U.S. businessmen. Asia had a ready supply of cheap labor for America's developing west. In 1848, Palmer, now a counselor to the U.S. Supreme Court, envisioned the nation's destiny in the Southwest. He saw the potential of San Francisco as a great Pacific Ocean harbor, the most obvious departure point for Asia. He encouraged the importation of Chinese laborers to clear the land, build a railroad and engage in agriculture in California. Therefore, the Chinese and Japanese joined the Africans, Indians and others on the plantations, and in the fields and mines of the elite.<sup>[213]</sup>

Palmer's letter of April 4, 1849 to John M. Clayton recommending a U.S. envoy to Japan, included charts of the U.S. coast survey and maps from the Topographical Bureau and numerous other public documents and newspaper reports.<sup>[214]</sup> On September 17, 1849, he submitted a revised "Plan for opening Japan" to U.S. Secretary of State John M. Clayton (1849-1850). Clayton approved of the plan and the government adopted it as policy, which Commodore Matthew C. Perry accomplished in 1853.<sup>[215]</sup> Yale-educated Clayton, an attorney, a member of the Whig Party, was an ardent advocate of commercial expansion. He negotiated the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty on April 19, 1850 with British minister, Sir Henry Bulwer-Lytton. It was a guarantee of neutrality and support of British travel across the isthmus at Panama. This document was the basis for the U.S. construction of the Panama Canal.<sup>[216]</sup>

On February 12, 1857, Palmer presented invoices to William H. Seward, of the Committee on Commerce for public relations work with foreign countries. The late Secretary Clayton in a letter to the Senate dated January 18, 1855 substantiated his invoices. He also enclosed his plan directed to President Fillmore, dated September 17, 1849, for "opening" Japan. In 1853, Palmer recommended to Navy Secretary John P. Kennedy the exploration of the "Behring's Strait" under Commander Cadwallader Ringgold. He wrote to Palmer on February 26, 1857 to attest to his preparation for that expedition.<sup>[217]</sup> The *Congressional Globe*, February 13, 1857, reported that Palmer's invoices were paid. Clayton was especially appreciative of Palmer's efforts in organizing the Japan Expedition. He wrote, "He has thrown more light on it, and given more information on the subject, to the State Department, and to the Congress of the United States, than anyone else."<sup>[218]</sup>

# The Bank of the United States, First and Second

President James Madison (1809-1817) said, “History records that the money changers have used every form of abuse, intrigue, deceit, and violent means possible to maintain their control over governments by controlling money and its issuance.” Mayer Amschel Rothschild reportedly said, “Give me control of a nation’s currency, and I care not who makes the laws.” It is true whoever said it.



Allegedly, Alexander Hamilton was an Illuminist and a Freemason, and given his actions, he probably represented the Dutch bankers who already controlled the Bank of England. Hamilton came to the colonies in 1772 from Nevis, a British colony in the West Indies. Poet and philosopher Ezra Pound states that Hamilton was “Hebrew” and “Scotch.”<sup>[219]</sup> On December 14, 1780, Hamilton married Elizabeth Schuyler, the daughter of the influential General Philip Schuyler, at the Schuyler Mansion in Albany, New York. Elizabeth’s mother was a von Rensselaer, a very elite family.<sup>[220]</sup>

In as much as Hamilton probably worked as a foreign agent for the Dutch bankers, presumably the imposition of a monarchical government would occur through financial manipulations as suggested by James Madison – via abuse, intrigue, deceit or violent means. The Revolutionary War (April 19, 1775-September 3, 1783) initiated America’s public debt. Hamilton designed a debt-based financial system, similar to the system that Britain utilized. In 1779-1780, Hamilton summarized a strategy to bring about the restitution of paper credit, and establish a “permanent fund for the future exigencies of government.”<sup>[221]</sup>

Robert Morris, who was also a Freemason, was the U.S. Superintendent of Finance (1781-1784) at the end of the war. He was a Pennsylvania merchant and banker who people have extolled as “the financier of the Revolution.”<sup>[222]</sup> In 1781, during the war, Hamilton and Morris persuaded an acquiescent Congress to allow them to establish the Bank of North America, modeled after the Bank of England, which used fractional reserve banking. The Congress of the Confederation chartered this bank on December 31, 1781. It opened on January 7, 1782 as the nation’s first chartered bank.<sup>[223]</sup> The Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, the original seat of the colonial government, revoked the bank’s charter in 1785. Benjamin Franklin spent time in England and understood the intricacies and dangers associated with fractional reserve banking, and private investors controlling the issuance of a nation’s currency as used in the Bank of England. Until his death in 1791, he resisted such an arrangement in America.

All contemporary commercial banks use fractional-reserve banking, a practice wherein a bank may lend out the majority of the money that its customers deposit while maintaining a “fraction” in reserve. Banks are also obligated to relinquish all deposits on demand. This system inflates the amount of money a bank may lend, usually in the form of credit (paper) rather than actual cash. Meanwhile, the bank’s owners collect interest on the credit (indebtedness) they extend, essentially creating money of nothing. As William Paterson said, “The Bank hath benefit of interest on all moneys which it creates out of nothing.”<sup>[224]</sup> Consumers obtain credit or indebtedness based on the proceeds of their future labor and/or their current collateral assets, which the banker would seize if the consumer defaults on the interest payments. In essence, the Capitalist banker (purveyors of usury) controls labor and wages.<sup>[225]</sup>

On June 9, 1784, after the war, Alexander Hamilton had founded his own state-chartered bank, the Bank

of New York, receiving its charter in 1791. He modeled his bank after Morris' bank and it was popular with investors.<sup>[226]</sup> State charters were often difficult to obtain but private banks did not require charters but still functioned like chartered banks except they did not issue their own currencies. Pennsylvania had outlawed private banks. Therefore, New York became the nation's primary banking center. Alexander Brown and Sons, a private bank in New York, became Brown Brothers Harriman, a bank that maintained its private status into the twentieth century.<sup>[227]</sup> Isaac Roosevelt (1726-1794), the great-great grandfather of Franklin Delano Roosevelt was one of the bank's co-founders and its president (1786-1791).<sup>[228]</sup> A merchant, with a store on Wall Street, he also built one of the first sugar refineries in New York City.

On September 11, 1789, George Washington appointed Hamilton as Treasury Secretary (1789-1795), according to his agreement with the international bankers.

Hamilton would finance the Confederation's old debt by converting them into new federal bonds. He would also help establish the Bank of the United States, a corporation, patterning its charter after the Bank of England, complete with bank shares and national debt.<sup>[229]</sup> Hamilton immediately instituted what his Hamiltonian Economic Program through the issuance of three reports to Congress. On September 21, 1789, the House of Representatives commissioned Hamilton's *First Report on Public Credit*, a forty-thousand-word document, which recommended the retirement of the national debt. The House presented it on January 14, 1790 proposing the federal assumption of state debt.<sup>[230]</sup> Hamilton's *Second Report on Public Credit* recommended the establishment of a National Bank. On December 5, 1791, Hamilton, in Congress, presented *Report on Manufactures* which recommended policies to stimulate the new republic's economy based on Mercantilism, an economic theory suggesting that a nation's prosperity is predicated on its supply of capital assets, represented by state-held bullion (gold, silver), augmented through balanced (exports, imports) international trade. Hamilton, to promote the policies, formed the Federalist Party (1792-1816).

## The First Bank of the United States

Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, at the first session of the First Congress in 1790, officially proposed the concept of a central bank. Northern merchants and numerous New England state governments unanimously supported Hamilton's proposal. However, the majority of the representatives from the Southern mostly agricultural states were highly suspicious of his proposal. They perceived that, for them, an agricultural economy, a central bank concentrated financial power away from the states. Nevertheless, certain people in the North strongly advocated its acceptance.

Hamilton claimed that the nation needed to establish a mint, impose an excise tax, and establish financial order and set precedents for the newly formed United States. Additionally, the nation needed to establish domestic and foreign credit and to resolve the issue of a fiat currency, previously issued by the Continental Congress just before the outbreak of the Revolutionary War, a war that created debt. When a nation incurs warfare debt, they have to initiate a system to pay it. Hamilton argued that the bank was necessary in order to provide the government with a reasonable method of collecting taxes and borrowing money. He claimed that the clause applied to the government's endeavors that related to its constitutional powers, not just absolute powers but implied powers. In addition to the purported powers to charter and operate federal banks, the Federalists connected the clause to the General Welfare clause. The government exploited the General Welfare clause to justify their "constitutional powers" to extract taxes, borrow money and exercise virtual control over the nation's currency.

On February 23, 1791, Alexander Hamilton invoked the Necessary and Proper Clause, Article One of the U.S. Constitution, section 8, clause 18, "The Congress shall have Power – To make all Laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into Execution the foregoing Powers, and all other Powers vested by

this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any Department or Officer thereof” to persuade Congress to charter a central bank. He established this constitutional criterion of what is permissible according to the document.<sup>[231]</sup> The elites designed the Constitution as a vehicle to re-pay the war debt accrued by 1789. The bankers rolled over that debt, adding additional interest, and it became due in 1859, just before Lincoln’s War. They rolled it over every seventy years – 1789, 1859, 1929 and 1999. Evaluate the economic chaos in those years.

Hamilton argued, “It may be truly said of every government, as well as of that of the United States, that it has only a right, to pass such laws as are necessary and proper to accomplish the objects entrusted to it. For no government has a right to do merely what it pleases. Hence by a process of reasoning similar to that of the Secretary of State, it might be proved, that neither of the State governments has the right to incorporate a bank. It might be shown, that all the public business of the State, could be performed without a bank, and inferring thence that it was unnecessary it might be argued that it could not be done, because it is against the rule which has been just mentioned. A like mode of reasoning would prove that there was no power to incorporate the Inhabitants of a town, with a view to a more perfect police. For it is certain, that an incorporation may be dispensed with, though it is better to have one. It is to be remembered that there is no express power in any State constitution to erect corporations.”<sup>[232]</sup>

Further, Hamilton maintained, “It leaves therefore a criterion of what is constitutional, and of what is not so. This criterion is the end, to which the measure relates as a mean. If the end be clearly comprehended within any of the specified powers, and if the measure have an obvious relation to that end, and is not forbidden by any particular provision of the constitution – it may safely be deemed to come within the compass of the national authority. There is also this further criterion, which may materially assist the decision: Does the proposed measure abridge a pre-existing right of any State, or of any individual? If it does not, there is a strong presumption in favour of its constitutionality; and slighter relations to any declared object of the constitution may be permitted to turn the scale.”<sup>[233]</sup>

The interpretation of the Necessary and Proper Clause continued to be a point of contention and led to the formation of Democratic-Republican Party and the Federalist Party. On February 25, 1791, Congress, through the persuasion of Alexander Hamilton, created the Bank of the United States to handle the financial needs and requirements of the central government of the newly formed United States. Previously, the thirteen individual states had their own banks, currencies, financial institutions, and policies. Although the Constitution does not sanction central banks, Congress chartered the Bank of the United States for ten years. Private investors owned it. The Philadelphia-based Bank of the United States had branch offices in New York and other major East Coast cities. Unlike the commercial state-chartered banks that were required to operate within their home states, the Bank of the United States, a central bank, could operate in other states, which annoyed many state bankers. They resented the competition and the interference from the federal government. Many local merchants, preparing to establish state-chartered banks, did not want federal regulation.<sup>[234]</sup>

They established the original capital of the bank at \$10 million. The government subscribed to \$2 million. Then the bank, which also served as the government’s fiscal agent, loaned \$2 million to the government at 6% interest, which it was to repay in ten equal installments. It permitted the public to subscribe to the remaining \$8 million. Institutional investors and domestic merchants bought most of the remaining subscriptions, which the auctioneers traded on Wall Street. There was significant controversy concerning the government’s role in chartering a private company. People feared that the bank would evolve into a strong central bank like the Bank of England (1694) which monopolized the issuance of bank notes. Other banks began making deposits and using the bank as a clearinghouse.<sup>[235]</sup>

In 1793, out of the \$8 million that comprised the funds of the Bank of the United States, \$7 million was

mostly from British investors. By 1810, Nathan Rothschild purportedly became one of the investors in that first bank. These shareholders particularly liked to invest in financial institutions and Treasury bonds. The House of Baring, later renamed Baring Brothers & Company facilitated the majority of the British investments in the U.S. They had direct influence within the federal government when it appointed the bank as official agents of the U.S. government to represent British interests. Baring had handled the Louisiana Purchase, formalized on May 2 1803.<sup>[236]</sup>

Many people resented having what amounted to a central bank, under the control of foreigners. Some even feared that King George was a shareholder. Congress refused to re-charter the bank in 1811. Investors had made about eight percent profit per year during the twenty years. The federal government cleared \$600,000 from its investment. However, people were very concerned about the bank controlling the government so the government allowed the charter to expire. Just before the eruption of the War of 1812, they returned the subscriptions to the British investors. Stephen Girard was one of the major domestic investors.<sup>[237]</sup> By 1811, individual states chartered over 120 state banks. Some had even begun issuing their own currency. The federal government resorted to demanding specie payments in 1817. Bank owners resented having to surrender to a strong central bank.

Philadelphia resident Stephen Girard (1750-1831) made his fortune trading slaves and opium. He was a pilot, the individual on a ship who was in charge of trading.

When China banned the British from smuggling opium into the country, Stephen Girard and other Americans took over. Baring Brothers initially financed Girard who became one of America's richest men. He put up half of the sixteen million dollars needed to finance the War of 1812 and charged a ten percent commission.<sup>[238]</sup> Baring Brothers financed the opium traffic from 1783 and maintained a close association with prominent Boston families. John Murray Forbes (1813-1898) was a Barings agent, a position earlier occupied by Stephen Girard, the father of the first American on the Hong Shang board.<sup>[239]</sup>

During the presidency of James Madison, the House of Representatives created a bill to re-charter the bank but it failed by one vote, 65 to 64, on January 24, 1811. It also failed in the Senate when Vice President George Clinton broke a tie vote on February 20, 1811. However, in 1816, Madison revived the bank as the Second Bank of the United States because of huge debts that accumulated from the War of 1812 and ineffectiveness of the state banks.

## The Second Bank of the United States

By the end of the War of 1812, the financial system of the country was in chaos. Congress favored the chartering of a new bank for 20 years. On April 10, 1816, the U.S. Congress passed an act entitled *An Act to Incorporate the Subscribers to the Bank of the United States*, which provided for the incorporation of the Second Bank of the United States, with its main branch in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. On February 11, 1818, the Maryland General Assembly passed legislation to impose a tax on all banks, or branches thereof, within the State of Maryland that their legislature had not chartered. Based on their law, Maryland attempted to tax all un-chartered banks and bank branches, a policy that targeted the Bank of the United States, which had a branch in Baltimore.

James McCulloch, a Federal cashier at the Baltimore Branch of the Second Bank of the United States refused to pay a \$15,000 annual fee as required by the state. John James, an opportunistic informer, filed a lawsuit. He hoped to collect one-half of the fines according to the provisions of the statute. Lawyers appealed the case in the Maryland Court of Appeals where the state of Maryland argued, "The Constitution is silent on the subject of banks." The state of Maryland contended that because the Constitution did not authorize the federal government to charter a bank, the Bank of the United States was unconstitutional. The court favored the state of Maryland. Then the lawyers appealed the case in the

Supreme Court. This resulted in the lawsuit, James McCulloch versus The State of Maryland, in the U.S. Supreme Court where lawyers argued the case on February 22, 1819.<sup>[240]</sup>

On March 6, 1819, John Marshall ruled in favor of Congress, stating that it had a right to establish a corporation, an entity with numerous private investors. Although the word bank is not in the Constitution, he stated that if the federal government permitted Maryland to tax the bank then states could assume the power to alter the Constitution. Thus, it would be an admission that the states were more powerful than the federal government. Therefore, in a landmark decision, Marshall and the court ruled that the Bank of the United States was legal and not subject to state taxes in any state which had a branch. That court case increased the credibility and investor confidence in the Second Bank. He argued, “The result is a conviction that the states have no power, by taxation or otherwise, to retard, impede, burden, or in any manner control, the operations of the constitutional laws enacted by Congress to carry into execution the powers vested in the general government.” This case affected the states’ rights debate for four decades.<sup>[241]</sup>

The Court argued that the word “necessary” in the Necessary and Proper Clause does not refer to the only way of doing something. Controversy erupted regarding this clause during the discussions of the proposed constitution. Delegates, critical of this phrase, opposed ratifying the Constitution. Instead, Justice Marshall argued, it applies to innumerable procedures for implementing all constitutionally established powers. Justice Marshall clarified, “Let the end be legitimate, let it be within the scope of the constitution, and all means which are appropriate, which are plainly adapted to that end, which are not prohibited, but consist with the letter and spirit of the constitution, are constitutional.”<sup>[242]</sup>

Consequently, Congress determined that the Second Bank of the United States was a valid institution based on that important decision which stipulated that Congress could delegate their constitutional power to others to create a bank or a corporation. John Marshall, the Chief Justice just happened to own stock in the Second Bank.<sup>[243]</sup> Evidently, like today’s close financial collaboration between military contractors and Congress, people did not question the apparent conflict of interest.

The new charter allowed the president to appoint five of the twenty-five directors. British investors, bankers, and U.S. citizens, frequently using government bonds to purchase shares invested in the bank. Bankers at the state-chartered banks resented what appeared to be a central bank that could establish branches in every state. The Bank of the United States (BUS) accumulated state bank notes and then demanded specie for them, which allowed them to exchange paper for gold or silver. Officials at the state banks viewed this as an attempt to curtail their ability to create their own notes and coin their own money.<sup>[244]</sup> Congress chartered the Second Bank of the United States for twenty years. After two bank presidents, officials appointed Nicholas Biddle as president. State banks and frontiersmen criticized the bank as it catered to the Eastern commercial classes. However, this bank was still in Philadelphia, not New York City, at least not yet.

## **New York City, the Center of Mercantilism**

The best way to manage a country is to draw part of the nation closer to the “evil system of mercantilism” in accordance with Adam Smith’s prediction. This is effective even if another part of the country prefers a more agricultural type of society.<sup>[245]</sup>

In the eighteenth century, Britain’s Lancashire mills received their cotton from the Mediterranean, the West Indies, India and Brazil. After the American Revolution, farmers in Carolina began growing more cotton, which they exported to Liverpool or Havre through New York instead of using direct shuttles from Charleston, Savannah, Mobile, or New Orleans. New Yorkers, with their coastal packet lines, developed the “cotton triangle,” cotton transported from the south to New York and then to Europe, which added an extra 200 miles from which the Northerners could collect a heavy toll and extra charges for unloading and

reloading. New Yorkers could not feasibly handle direct eastbound shipments without this unusual arrangement. The cotton supplied the New Yorkers with a lucrative eastbound cargo. The return trip brought European exports back to New York, a large proportion of which the New York merchants sent coastwise to the southern states. New Yorkers also had a financial interest in the direct shipments of cotton from southern ports.<sup>[246]</sup>

Eli Whitney's invention of the cotton gin increased productivity, which led to expanded planting. By 1806, the U.S. exceeded the West Indies as a cotton source. By 1810, cotton exports to Britain accounted for more than half of their cotton imports. After the War of 1812, New York, previously overshadowed commercially by Boston, was in a position to advance the cotton triangle to include other commodities.<sup>[247]</sup> Between 1815 and 1860, freight activity through the port of New York experienced significant growth. It was a landlocked harbor, had deep water and was close to the open sea.<sup>[248]</sup> New Yorkers sold flour, their biggest export, and other food products to the sugar-producing islands, the southern European nations and along the Atlantic seaboard.<sup>[249]</sup>

Coastal trade to New York included small schooners from Maine carrying lumber or from the Chesapeake hauling grain and larger vessels with cotton from the southern ports.<sup>[250]</sup> The Black Ball Line began operations the end of 1818 with regular service between New York and Liverpool. Jeremiah Thompson, who emigrated from Yorkshire in 1801, was the principal owner. By the 1820s, he was "the foremost cotton trader in the world."<sup>[251]</sup> Thompson, wealthy merchant and ship owner, had an office on Wall Street, next door to the Bank of America.<sup>[252]</sup> Black Ball shipped British goods south and brought cotton back to New York. His colleague, Benjamin Marshall spent his winters in Georgia buying cotton from the planters, a way to direct southern commerce and profits north.<sup>[253]</sup>

New York businessmen assumed a large share of the South's commercial activity and collected interest, commissions, freight, insurance, and additional employment for thousands, along with other secondary profits. Southerners, typically more trusting, leisurely and easygoing, ultimately realized that the New Yorkers were receiving forty cents of every dollar paid for southern cotton. New York financiers lent money for others to plant wheat or cotton and then managed the exportation of those products out of New York in ships that they either owned or financed during construction. Bankers advanced money to shopkeepers to restock or increase inventories. Farmers, shopkeepers and plantation owners all paid interest to do business, year after year. Most of the nation's business hinged on the relationships built with New York bankers.<sup>[254]</sup>

By the 1820s, it was no secret that New York handled most of the South's cotton shipments, the most valuable of New York's domestic exports and the most valuable single product in British imports. In 1821, the U.S total of exports, including specie, was \$54,000,000 with cotton comprising \$20,000,000 with tobacco at \$5,000,000 and flour at \$4,000,000. In 1822, the total value of the port's domestic exports was \$9,228,000 out of which cotton represented \$3,925,000. Flour, the principal northern offering, represented \$794,000. Southern products represented 55% of all shipments. New Yorkers, without the south, would have been hard-pressed for eastbound cargoes on the Atlantic shuttle. By 1851, among the New York exports, excluding specie, cotton accounted for \$112,000,000 or nearly 60%, with flour at \$10,000,000, and tobacco at \$9,000,000.<sup>[255]</sup>

They initially surveyed the Erie Canal in 1810. In 1811, a canal commission, with Chairman DeWitt Clinton, Gouverneur Morris, Stephen Van Rensselaer, and Thomas Eddy suggested constructing a canal to Lake Erie. The Erie Canal Bill, dated April 17, 1816, after the War of 1812, authorized the building of an artificial 363 mile-long waterway connecting New York City with the Great Lakes via the Hudson River. It would help settle Ohio and facilitate trade between Cleveland and other localities along the lake. The driving force behind the canal project was DeWitt Clinton, a Freemason and mayor of New York City

(1803-1815) and Governor of New York (1817 -1823, 1825-1828). In 1817, he got the legislature to appropriate over \$7 million for construction via New York state bonds in addition to private investors, including Frederick Havemeyer, George Lorillard, John Jacob Astor, Landon Cheves, Nicholas Brown, Thomas P. Ives, Edward Carrington and numerous British investors. Bank customers borrowed in order to invest in the canal. By 1829, foreigners, particularly the British who valued infrastructure investments, owned more than half of the canal's outstanding obligations of \$7.9 million. They employed about 9,000 construction workers. More than 1,000 of them died during the project. Author Peter L. Bernstein says that the Erie Canal was the first step toward globalization and a worldwide complex of transportation routes.<sup>[256]</sup> In 1811, after Clinton became lieutenant governor of New York, he rented Richmond Hill, a large estate on the shores of the Hudson, from John Jacob Astor.<sup>[257]</sup> Clinton hoped that the canal project would catapult him into the White House.<sup>[258]</sup>

Patenting increased after the opening of the Erie Canal. From 1810 to 1825, the Patent Office received about 200 patents a year. By 1835, there were 700 patents and New York State led the nation in new patents. Southern New England took the lead in manufacturing after 1830 with New York as a close second.<sup>[259]</sup> Clinton saw New York City as the “granary of the world, the emporium of commerce and the seat of manufacturers.” He envisioned the whole island of Manhattan covered with inhabitants, which would constitute one “vast city.”<sup>[260]</sup>

The U.S. had received a £900,000 loan from the Rothschilds in 1839. After the Depression of 1837-1843, the U.S. saw great reform in Britain's trade laws, including England's repeal of the Corn Laws in 1846, which allowed tariff-free grain and America's Walker Tariff of 1846. U.S. Politicians, like Ohio's Senator William Allen, hoped for an expansion of lucrative free trade for U.S. agricultural and other products. By 1846, Congress began pursuing reciprocal trading agreements with other countries. President James K. Polk, a Freemason, extracted a mutual free-trade agreement with Brazil in 1847. By late 1848, the U.S. signed reciprocal trade treaties with New Granada, Peru, the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies (Italy), Belgium, Hanover and several other German states. By 1853, the U.S. made agreements with Paraguay and Argentina.<sup>[261]</sup>

Following the repeal of the Corn Laws, Britain was the “standard bearer of free trade among the nations of the world.” As officials lifted the tariffs, corn imports tripled, food prices were lower and the reduction in food costs encouraged migration away from agriculture towards the cities and factories. Consequently, Britain had an economic advantage – the coal-based industrial power in the Midlands and the vast seagoing capacity transformed export and import trade throughout the world. Agricultural workers left the farms and employment in the factories soared. Agricultural labor shrank from twenty-five percent in 1846 to about ten percent by 1900.<sup>[262]</sup>

Many of the exports for Britain moved along the Erie Canal. From 1837 to 1845, the canal carried an average of 1.5 million tons of freight a year, with a high of 2,000,000 in 1845. American exports to Britain from 1836 to 1846 averaged \$48 million a year. Officials repealed the Corn Law in 1846. In 1847, exports to Britain totaled \$87 million. From 1851 forward, exports never fell below \$100 million.<sup>[263]</sup>

George Bancroft entered the political realm in 1837 when Martin Van Buren appointed him as the Collector of Customs of the Port of Boston. Bancroft, from a prominent Massachusetts family, began his education at Phillips Exeter Academy and entered Harvard at age thirteen, graduated at seventeen with a scholarship to study at Heidelberg, Berlin and Göttingen where he received his doctorate in 1820. He sought out and took a five-month course from Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel at the University of Berlin. On March 1, 1827, Bancroft married Sarah Hopkins Dwight, daughter of Jonathan Dwight Jr., a wealthy Massachusetts banker.<sup>[264]</sup> Bancroft, as Secretary of the Navy (1845-1846), later helped to establish the

U.S. Naval Academy at Annapolis in 1845. George Bancroft delivered the eulogy for Andrew Jackson on June 21, 1844 in Washington.<sup>[265]</sup> Military schools were established and promoted to groom a select congregation of individuals who would battle for the banking establishment. Bancroft, a Democratic diplomat, served as Minister to Britain in late 1846. He and colleagues were elated over England's repeal of the Corn Laws. Globalists were inspired over the recent reforms that they hoped would initiate "an unprecedented and lucrative era of free trade."<sup>[266]</sup>

Effective January 1, 1801, the Irish, after considering the proposed benefits, united with England, which meant free trade between the countries. It is amazing that the Irish would even consider such an affiliation, given England's history of hatred toward them. In Queen Elizabeth's time (1533-1603), nobles who received lands and governing powers in Ireland thought that it necessary to exterminate the Irish but the Crown and the feudal lords did not want to finance the extermination.<sup>[267]</sup>

That mentality remained. Britain dismantled the Irish Parliament and the British Parliament legislated for both countries. Even though Ireland had a population of 8,000,000 in 1841, they produced sufficient food, flax, and wool to take care of the needs of 18,000,000 people during the 1840s, thus they had extra to export. A potato blight devastated Ireland's potato crop but Britain did not halt exports, a policy Ireland had implemented during previous crop blights. Per British policy, Ireland was still obligated to export numerous food items and grains to England, except for potatoes; the Irish could keep those. British officials even increased some export items during the worst part of the famine. Consequently, between the years of 1845 and 1850 the British government permitted massive starvation of the Irish people who, according to some elites, produced far too many children anyway. Statisticians estimate that 1,000,000 died of starvation and related illnesses and 1,000,000 emigrated because of the famine.

The North had a difficult time getting cheap labor, as there were insufficient people willing to work for what the elite wanted to pay. On January 1, 1847, in the City of London, Baron Lionel de Rothschild, banker Thomas Baring and Samuel Jones Lloyd, a Manchester banker met under the auspices of the British Relief Association, established to determine how to help the starving, abysmally poor Irish peasants. Famines (1845 and 1852) and imminent death, with Rothschild's assistance, motivated them to leave their beloved Ireland. Half of all Irish immigrants disembarked at New York where they conveniently met the needs of a labor-intensive economy. From May 5, 1847, until the end of the year, a little over seven months, 52,946 Irish arrived in New York.<sup>[268]</sup> The influx of Irish immigrants also provided a block of voters who would vote with the North against the South.

The *Times* reported, "It was in Baron Lionel's own room in New Court, in December 1846, that the British Relief Association was organized, Messrs. N. M. Rothschild and Sons subscribing with others the munificent sum of £1,000." He also loaned the British government about £500,000, referred to as the Irish Famine Loan to render relief for those who did not emigrate. In 1854, Rothschild "raised a sum of £16,000,000" for Irish relief efforts.<sup>[269]</sup> He became a member of the British House of Commons in 1847, two years after the commencement of the famine, after thousands had already died of hunger.

During the famine years, about 650,000 Irish arrived in New York where industrial jobs awaited them. The poorly paid workers, whisked from their homeland, typically labored in hazardous circumstances and led wretched lives. In the 1850s, Irish immigrants, usually with large families to support, earned \$1.00 per day in the only labor that was available.<sup>[270]</sup> Like today, famine and economic destitution in one area represents cheap labor somewhere else. Similarly, in the mid-1990s, the bankers devalued the peso, which created desperation and much of the influx of Mexicans into the U.S. Irish laborers earned subsistent wages as long as industrial injuries did not incapacitate them. Available housing consisted of filthy, vermin-infested, overcrowded boarding houses in lower Manhattan at exorbitant prices. If they lost their jobs, slumlords evicted them, the poor souls, slaves of industrial labor, and confiscated their

belongings for unpaid rent. With such despair, New York experienced an increase in crime and a high infant mortality rate. The slumlord Astor family, deeply involved in the Tammany Society, owned several buildings where thousands of people existed. When the tenants rioted against the decrepit state of the buildings, the police suppressed them. John Jacob Astor III also ran “sweat shops” for the impoverished living in his Manhattan tenements.

Ten major cotton states produced 66% of the world’s cotton before Lincoln’s War. Raw cotton comprised over half of all U.S. exports. By 1850, there were about 2.3 million souls laboring on about 75,000 southern plantations. Two million out of the total number of slaves produced about 2,000,000 bales a year. Shippers sent cotton to England or to Boston for the domestic textile industry. The South had produced about 2.3 billion pounds of cotton during the growing season that ended on August 31, 1860. Approximately half of that went to Britain, which had 2,650 textile factories, mostly located in Lancashire, the heart of textile manufacturing.<sup>[271]</sup>

Henry Lehman, age twenty-four, the son of a Würzburg cattle merchant, had arrived in America in 1844 and became an itinerate peddler. His business grew and in 1845, he moved to Montgomery, Alabama, set up a small shop and mounted a sign, H. LEHMAN. His two younger brothers, Emanuel and Mayer joined him by 1850. The brothers were all Rothschild representatives.<sup>[272]</sup> Now known as Lehman Brothers, they retailed clothes, utensils, food, and other imported articles that local cotton farmers readily purchased.<sup>[273]</sup> By 1858, Lehman brothers opened their first branch office in Manhattan where they made a fortune during Lincoln’s War. Mayer was in Montgomery, Alabama; Henry was in New Orleans and Emanuel was in New York, as a cotton broker. They situated themselves where they could best exploit the profit possibilities during the war.<sup>[274]</sup>

By 1860, New York had 4,375 factories that employed 90,204 workers. The 539 ironworks employed 10,000 laborers, all situated on the island of Manhattan, near the port. Similar industries were adjacent to each other with cabinetmakers close to numerous sawmills that processed the timber. All of this industry relied on auxiliary commerce like importers, machine shops, advertising and such. The city’s rattrap, waterless, toilet-less three closet-size-rooms tenements were home to thousands of laborers.<sup>[275]</sup> During the 1840s, the City’s population had increased by over 60%, to 515,547. In the next decade, the population jumped to 813,669, mostly the Irish famine victims.

The importation of cheap labor decreased production costs, one of the North’s main pre-war contentions against the South. Now they could focus their attentions on a campaign to abolish slavery. Ironically, many states, New Jersey, Indiana, Illinois, Ohio and Oregon passed laws prohibiting free blacks from entering their state and many Northerners joined the colonization efforts. The hypocritical Northerners were committed to emancipation but wanted the freed slaves to remain in the South. The Northern elite resented the South, which had ceased to be a viable market for their slave trading. Now the Northerners trafficked human misery in the Atlantic Islands, the Caribbean and South America.<sup>[276]</sup>

Postwar, in 1870 the U.S. produced 4,300,000 bales of cotton; by 1882 the nation produced 6,900, 000 bales and by 1891 the nation grew 9,000,000 bales. Prices dropped because of the plentiful supply. The wheat situation was the same. Consequently, some industrialists sought foreign markets.<sup>[277]</sup>

## **The South, a Profitable Colony**

In 1857, Hinton Rowan Helper, the son of a North Carolina yeoman farmer wrote *The Impending Crisis of the South* in which he justifiably claimed that the South was nothing but a colony of the North. Slavery benefited very few and most of the white Southerners were in a state of ignorance. The North, according to Helper, out-produced the Slave States in all edible produce and grain while the Slave States produced

cotton and tobacco, cash crops not grown in the North.<sup>[278]</sup>

Helper said that it was a well-known fact to every intelligent Southerner that they were compelled to go to the North for basic essentials. The South had no foreign trade or the mercantilism that was so prevalent in the North. The South had no cotton-mills or steamships and contributed little to literature, art or inventions. In order to find profitable employment, large numbers of Southerners moved to the West. While the North retained their natural born citizens, they also encouraged hundreds of thousands of foreigners to settle there. Southerners manufactured very little as Northerners readily met their demands for products. Therefore, Southerners found it unnecessary and were not motivated to develop industry.<sup>[279]</sup>

Helper argued that the South always claimed agricultural superiority over the North. However, comparing bushel to bushel, the North unquestionably produced more than 50% of the most valuable, eatable produce. The North showed a balance against the South, in favor of the North, of 17,423,152 bushels and a difference in value of \$44,782,636.<sup>[280]</sup> Southerners were frustrated to discover that instead of having an agricultural advantage, the South was sinking deeper into poverty. Meanwhile, the rival North extracted whatever wealth remained and was achieving fame, fortune, and power. Helper wrote that they “cried out for retribution against the treacherous, slave-driving legislators, who have so basely and unpatriotically neglected the interests of their poor white constituents and bargained away the rights of posterity.” The white non-slaveholders comprised the majority, five to one, yet they had no legislative voice as the slaveholders designed the laws to benefit slavery and plantation owners. The lawmakers regarded poor whites, the majority, with less esteem than they viewed the blacks. However, their condition was often more wretched. He wrote, “A cunningly devised mockery of freedom is guaranteed to them, and that is all. To all intents and purposes they are disenfranchised, and outlawed, and the only privilege extended to them, is a shallow and circumscribed participation in the political movements that usher slaveholders into office.”<sup>[281]</sup>

Many northern industrialists demanded large protective tariffs, which affected the South in two ways – high consumer prices without the comparable benefits. They consumed a large amount of imported manufactured goods and relied on the export of their cotton and tobacco to purchase those items, mostly from England. Extra high tariffs increased consumer costs while filling the federal coffers. The federal government used those tariffs to build and maintain northern infrastructure and industry.<sup>[282]</sup> After the war, the South struggled to restore their economy and their railway system. Union soldiers deliberately destroyed private and public property, including transportation.<sup>[283]</sup>

On December 25, 1860, Robert Barnwell Rhett, from South Carolina, adamantly criticized the pending Morrill Tariff in an address to the South Carolina convention. He reiterated that Southern representation in Congress was useless in protecting them against unjust taxation. The Northerners taxed the Southerners for the exclusive benefit of the North, exactly as the people of Britain had taxed their ancestors in the British parliament. He said, “For the last forty years, the taxes laid by the Congress...have been laid with a view of subserving the interests of the North. The people of the South have been taxed by duties on imports, not for revenue, but for an object inconsistent with revenue— to promote, by prohibitions, Northern interests in the productions of their mines and manufactures.”<sup>[284]</sup> The Southern states provided about 75% of the money to operate the Federal Government, 50% of the total 75% was from Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia. The South received only 10% to 20% of this tariff money.

The Morrill Tariff Act of March 2, 1861 passed and increased the tariff from about 17% to 36% until the Underwood Tariff of 1913 replaced it. Officials blamed the Panic of 1857 for this tariff, saying that the free trade movement created the financial crisis. This was somewhat reminiscent of the 1828 Tariff of Abominations that ignited the Nullification Crisis.

New England industrialists controlled the North and supported the preservation of the Union, not only to

maintain but increase tariff revenue. They intended to extract southern resources to pay for the industrialization of America with little expense to the North. The revenue bills introduced in the House prior to the war were discriminatory against the South. Lincoln promised the industrialists that, if elected, he would increase the tariff rate. His war objective, to accommodate the Northern elites, was to maintain the Union, regardless of slavery. If the Union failed, they would lose millions because of their southern investments. They would also lose access to the South's cotton, a commodity controlled by northern businessmen. Author David Williams claims, "The Union was and always had been a speculative enterprise serving those with the economic capital and political influence to control raw materials, production, markets, and labor. Resources, including those of the South, served to fuel their money-making machine."<sup>[285]</sup>

## Mercantilism versus Agrarianism

People who advocated mercantilism provoked the European wars, such as the Anglo- Dutch Wars and the Franco-Dutch Wars. The Dutch leaders promoted Jewish immigration because of their financial and business experience and skill. They also had highly developed international trade connections, which soon transformed Holland into the "center of Jewish wealth and influence. According to Arthur Hertzberg, the Dutch formulated the Doctrine of Mercantilism, a system in which the state exists to increase their wealth and control, and not for the benefit or financial liberation of its citizens."<sup>[286]</sup>

Mercantilism dominated the economic environment from the sixteenth to the eighteenth century. Mercantilism involves government intervention and state control of the economy. Internationally, mercantilism fueled imperialism and provoked European wars between nations seeking resource-rich colonies and new markets. In the mid-nineteenth century, monopoly capitalism evolved into corporatism by the beginning of the twentieth century. Richard Cobden, a manufacturer residing in Britain, advocated the ideas of Adam Smith, the classical economist who wrote *The Wealth of Nations*. Politicians in America developed an economic system called the American System, a variety of neo-mercantilism, and a replacement of federalism. Alexander Hamilton, Henry Clay, Abraham Lincoln and the Republican Party embraced and promoted the American System.

The ruling class was composed of the property owners, the wealthiest, more cultured and articulate, and those who engaged in trade. They were the mercantile aristocracy, founded upon profitable commerce. They possessed the means of production and distribution because of royal grants, or an inheritance. Their commerce consisted of the exchange of products and the accumulation of assets – land, ships, buildings, and other tangible possessions. They associated with the governors, the bankers, the lawyers, the doctors, and the professors who occupied a respectable position in an invariable society. The ministers, not favoring exclusion, reconciled their moral values, assumed the status of political subordination, and accommodated their new lords."<sup>[287]</sup>

The upper or elite classes lived in the cities – Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Charleston, all eastern ports where ships arrived from England carrying manufactured goods, luxuries, books, journals, and news from the capitals of Europe. They returned to Europe with agricultural products, furs, skins, and wood. The elite class, with resident servants, was socially equal to the English bourgeoisie. The richer, urban class developed and controlled the expanding capitalism of commerce and shared an indistinguishable psychology with the British, even considering themselves as Englishmen with a rich cultural heritage. The War of Independence did not diminish this sense of kinship. They continued to look to London for their intellectual stimulation. Despite the promises of equality drafted in the documents following the Revolutionary War, the elite retained their contempt for the common middle class."<sup>[288]</sup>

Advocates of mercantilism promote a protectionist government that expands the economy by controlling

and encouraging exports while discouraging imports through high tariffs and subsidies to domestic industries. Adam Smith and others later discredited the English system of Mercantilism. However, Henry Clay's American or National System incorporated Hamilton's objectives, embodying the American School of Economics. This system promotes protection of industry via selective high tariffs and industrial government subsidies, government investments in national infrastructure and internal improvements, particularly in transportation, and finally, a national bank.

There were opposing alternatives to Mercantilism, one of which was agrarianism, the system that the powers behind the French Revolution destroyed. In France, François Quesnay (1694-1774) laid the foundation of the Physiocrats' economic theories in his book *Tableau Économique* (1758, Economic Table). Quesnay argued that people should distribute agricultural abundances through the economy as rents or wages. Moreover, government regulation hinders the economic development in every social class. Further, he said that taxes on the productive classes should be reduced and raised for the unproductive classes whose luxurious lifestyles distorts the income flow. His book stressed the importance of individualism and private property ownership, a critical component, unencumbered by oppressive taxation and government regulations.

Anne-Robert-Jacques Turgot (1727-1781) promoted the idea that self-interests motivated each segment of an economy to function appropriately. Individuals should have the liberty to determine what goods and commodities he desires and how much labor he was willing to expend to meet his objectives. An individual will work harder to benefit himself than he will by working for others. However, many other people supply each person's needs. An effective system exists when there is a complementary relationship between one person's requirements and another person's desires. Trade restrictions and government regulations place numerous unnatural obstacles to achieving individual goals.

Quesnay and others dominated the movement and popularized the phrase *laissez faire*, referring to the minimization or elimination of government intervention in most or all aspects of society, including the economy. The physiocrats, a group of European economists, supported agriculture and land development. Their ideas preceded the school of classical economics, which Adam Smith generated through his publication of *The Wealth of Nations* in 1776. The physiocrats advocated the concept that productive work is the source of national wealth. Their philosophies utterly opposed other economic theories, particularly mercantilism, which focused on the ruler's wealth, the accumulation of gold and the balance of trade.

Pierre Samuel du Pont further elaborated on these economic theories in his book, *Physiocracy* that encouraged low tariffs and free trade (without government intervention) among nations. Physiocracy was perhaps the first well-developed theory of economics and found great popularity during the second half of the 18th century. Du Pont initially supported the French Revolution, escaped execution and brought his entire family to the U.S. in 1799 where they hoped to found a model community of French exiles. In America, he developed strong connections to government and industry. He was especially close to Thomas Jefferson who had served as a diplomat in France. The Louisiana Purchase was Pierre Samuel du Pont's idea.

Despite the fact that there were other economic options, there were also numerous acquiescent Freemasons in the first Congress. Out of twenty-six senators, thirteen of them were Freemasons: Oliver Ellsworth, James Gunn, William S. Johnson, Samuel Johnston, Rufus King, John Langdon, Richard Henry Lee, James Monroe, Robert Morris, William Paterson, George Read, and Phillip Schuyler, Hamilton's father-in-law.<sup>[289]</sup>

The elite class had enjoyed years of political isolation from the beginning of their new life in America. The greater promises and riches resulting from the industrial revolution somewhat supplanted

mercantilism or at least it adopted alternative practices. This was particularly true with the discovery of gold and other natural resources. With industrialization, while opportunities opened up for the children of the lower classes and they could attend the universities, participate in the government, and open businesses, the elite still held the majority of the political power. However, the middle class contributed to a distinct nationalism that helped to transform society, at least for a time. [\[290\]](#)

# Social Engineering

## An Education Fit for Workers and Soldiers

### Prussian Educational System and Pestalozzi

In 1788, Comte de Mirabeau <sup>[291]</sup> declared that Prussia was an appropriate place for a potential revolution, led by the German Illuminists. While a terrorist-type revolution erupted in Paris (1789), revolutionary social engineering ideas spawned in Prussia. German rulers and innovative civil servants made numerous changes. They introduced religious tolerance and improved the conditions of the poor. Despite these improvements, enlightened despots withheld political freedoms and refused to restrain their political powers. Representative government, to address the needs of the masses, was obviously absent. The noblemen owned Prussia's great estates and the commoners were subordinates. Britain's enlightened despots demanded absolute respect and obedience, bordering on reverence, from their subjects. <sup>[292]</sup>

In 1791, Wilhelm von Humboldt (1767-1835) wrote *On the Limits of State Action* in defense of the Enlightenment. Friedrich Schiller, who had close Illuminati associations, influenced Humboldt and they maintained an ongoing correspondence. <sup>[293]</sup> Wilhelm and Alexander von Humboldt, his brother, were educated at Göttingen, a haven for Illuminati recruitment. Wilhelm helped shape the new morality through the educational system of a new Europe after the French Revolution. Alexander, later the Grand Master of the Society of Natural Scientists, traveled throughout the world and guided natural science into new paths.

Wilhelm Humboldt endorsed Count Mirabeau's state-managed education policies, all without parental interference. Mirabeau, a member of the Society of Thirty, <sup>[294]</sup> and instrumental in the Jewish emancipation, now supported the emancipation of children from their parents. In *Discourse on National Education*, he wrote, "Education will be good to the extent that it suffers no outside intervention; it will be all the more effective, the greater the latitude left to the diligence of the teachers and the emulation of their pupils." Thus, Humboldt asked the State to "safeguard the rights of children *against* their parents" so that "parental authority does not exceed normal bounds." <sup>[295]</sup>

The Prussian monarchy expected strict obedience from citizens. Rhetoric about individual rights and a reformed legal code only increased the authoritarian power of the state, enforced by the military. <sup>[296]</sup> During the eighteenth century Karl Abraham Freiherr von Zedlitz, Prussian reformer and Minister of Justice, attempted to replace the local control of education with a centralized, uniform state system. Zedlitz and Moses Mendelssohn were colleagues. <sup>[297]</sup> The state tried to seize control of local education using the 1794 Prussian General Land Law wherein all schools and universities automatically became state institutions. <sup>[298]</sup>

In 1782, Swiss-born Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi (1746-1827), a member of the Helvetian Society, the Illuminati initiated him into their ranks where his code name was Alfred, after the Anglo-Saxon king, known for restoring learning and education. Pestalozzi, considered the father of modern education, was one of several educators who joined the Order. Weishaupt sought individuals who would develop educational reforms designed in conformance with his Illuminati objectives. In 1783, Pestalozzi co-founded the Zurich branch of the Order, and co-founded, with Johann Heinrich Rahn, a society for intellectuals, actually an Illuminati front. <sup>[299]</sup>

After evaluating other schools and meeting Friedrich Gottlieb Klopstock, Johann Wolfgang Goethe, Christoph Martin Wieland and Johann Gottfried Herder in Leipzig in 1792, Pestalozzi formulated his own teaching methods. He established a school in 1799 and in 1801, wrote *How Gertrude Teaches Her Children* describing his methods. Shortly, almost 200 books advocated his teaching techniques. In 1805,

he moved to Yverdon, set up a school and taught there until 1825.<sup>[300]</sup> His students included Hippolyte Leon Denizard Rivail, Charles Badham, Johann Friedrich Herbart (a student at Göttingen, 1801-1809), Johannes Ramsauer, Delbrück, Blochmann, Carl Ritter and Friedrich Fröbel, who all became educators and promoted his methods. Pestalozzi frequently employed Ramsauer as his private secretary and worked him from early morning until night.<sup>[301]</sup> He certainly exposed his students to numerous Illuminati policies, whether they later affiliated with the secret society or not.

Many internationally prominent people visited the Pestalozzi school in Switzerland and praised his methods including Wilhelm von Humboldt, and Johann Gottlieb Fichte, allegedly a member of the Illuminati.<sup>[302]</sup> Charles Maurice de Talleyrand-Périgord (known as Talleyrand), Count Ioannis Antonios Kapodistrias, Frederick William III (1770-1840), Alexander 1 of Russia, and Anne Louise Germaine de Staël were all interested in his educational reforms.<sup>[303]</sup>

Napoleon crushed Frederick William III's Prussian army despite the best efforts of the Hessian soldiers. France's nationalistic mentality and a better-developed strategy won the Battle of Jena (October 14, 1806). French soldiers out-maneuvered the Prussian professionals who were slower to comprehend and react to the situation and had a weaker command structure. Johann Gottlieb Fichte wrote *Addresses to the German Nation* to arouse the Germans during Napoleon's French occupation of 1807. He decried the pathetic state of education and claimed it contributed to their defeat. He laid out a state-sponsored educational program.<sup>[304]</sup> His *Addresses* prompted Prussian officials to adopt Pestalozzi's teaching system, which did not jeopardize the elite class structure.<sup>[305]</sup> Fichte used Pestalozzi's ideas as the entire basis for German national education.<sup>[306]</sup> Author John Taylor Gatto, with reference to Fichte's tome said, "Children would have to be disciplined through a new form of universal conditioning. They could no longer be trusted to their parents. Look what Napoleon had done by banishing sentiment in the interests of nationalism."<sup>[307]</sup> The teachers would advocate and thereby institutionalize a disproportionate devotion to the state.

Prussia initiated "free" compulsory education for the primary grades, an eight-year course of study, for all children between five and thirteen which provided the rudimentary skills required for a developing industrialized world – reading, writing, and arithmetic. Students also received strict instruction in ethics, duty, discipline, and obedience. Affluent parents sent their children to private preparatory schools for four additional years whereas the general population lacked the opportunity for a secondary education.<sup>[308]</sup> The Prussian oligarchy inculcated social obedience through indoctrination so that every citizen viewed their leaders as consistently making correct decisions. The teachers taught the young men to have an undeviating loyalty to the government in preparation for military service. Fichte said, "The schools must fashion the person, and fashion him in such a way that he simply cannot will otherwise than what you wish him to will."<sup>[309]</sup>

Prussian officials, after the military defeat at Jena, were motivated to reorganize their school system to educate both the rich and poor, intellectually and morally. Beginning on February 28, 1809, Humboldt headed the culture and education department at the Ministry of the Interior. He intended, through education, to elevate the state. In 1808, Johann Heinrich Ludwig Nicolovius and Johann Wilhelm Süvern of the Prussian educational administration awarded scholarships to young teachers to study Pestalozzi's methods in Yverdon. Thereafter, they used and disseminated his academic ideas as the heads of teacher training seminaries or staff members of such institutions. On March 25, 1809, Humboldt wrote to his superiors and pledged to give Pestalozzi's method his undivided support.<sup>[310]</sup>

## University of Berlin and Göttingen

In 1810, the Prussian government founded the Humboldt Universität in Berlin (University of Berlin), an

immediate haven of radical intellectualism.<sup>[311]</sup> In the early 1800s, U.S. politicians and educators were impressed with the paternalistic educational system, designed to produce obedient, subservient citizens. Their superiors sent young Harvard professors, particularly Unitarians, to the University of Göttingen and Berlin to study religious liberalism and secular scholarship.<sup>[312]</sup> Numerous future U.S. politicians studied at Göttingen. Edward Everett went there in 1815; George Ticknor, George Bancroft and Joseph G. Cogswell followed. John Lothrop Motley studied there from 1831-33, and at the University of Berlin. U.S. students attended these universities in a steady stream over the next century.<sup>[313]</sup> Lionel Nathan de Rothschild went to Göttingen. Motley, a Harvard graduate, reportedly became good friends with Otto von Bismarck, a 33rd degree Freemason, at Göttingen. Motley was a member of the Institut de France, created on October 25, 1795 by former members of the Masonic lodge Les Neuf Sœurs and fashioned after the Masonic-based Royal Society of London. Motley defended and gave sustenance to Lincoln's war fervor and advocated Lincoln's drive towards statism.<sup>[314]</sup>

In 1810, Humboldt hired Christoph Wilhelm Friedrich Hufeland as chair of "special pathology and therapy" and as the first dean of medicine at the University of Berlin. Hufeland participated in the planning of the new medical faculty. He had attended Göttingen where he studied clinical medicine under Gottlieb Richter who advocated smallpox vaccines despite the death rate resulting from the inoculations. He treated and befriended Wieland, Herder, Goethe and Friedrich Schiller, all of whom had close Illuminati connections.<sup>[315]</sup> Hufeland joined the Order following his introduction to Freemasonry at Göttingen in 1783. He worked with Adolph Knigge and Adam Weishaupt. He promoted educational reform and pediatrics as a special field of medicine. He wrote *Good Advice for Mothers* in 1799 and the *Medical Handbook* in 1836.<sup>[316]</sup>

Friedrich Fröbel, a Pestalozzi student who also studied at Göttingen, established the first kindergarten in Prussia on June 28, 1840. Margarethe Meyer and her sister Bertha, daughters of Heinrich Meyer, a prosperous Jewish merchant, attended Fröbel's lectures beginning in 1849. Bertha spent two years opening kindergartens in Prussia. After the 1848 revolution, many revolutionaries relocated to England and then to the U.S. Bertha introduced her sister to Carl Schurz and they were soon married. In 1851, Bertha and her husband opened the England Infant Garden in Tavistock Place. She opened a kindergarten in Manchester in 1859 and one in Leeds in 1860.<sup>[317]</sup> Carl and Margarethe left for the U.S. in 1854.

Margarethe Schurz opened the first kindergarten in the U.S. in Watertown, Wisconsin. Yale-educated Henry Barnard visited Bertha Ronge, Schurz's sister, in London in 1854 and then began promoting her Fröbel-based kindergarten philosophy through lectures. He implemented the kindergarten program when he became the first U.S. Commissioner of Education (1867–1870). He worked with Horace Mann, a Freemason and another individual who influenced U.S. education. Elizabeth Peabody, a devotee of Goethe and Hegel, heard a lecture, met Margarethe Schurz and soon started a kindergarten in Boston, which influenced the development of kindergartens in New England.<sup>[318]</sup> The Dwight family, of Yale University, funded Mann, who advocated mandatory school and once remarked – "School is the cheapest police." Mann promoted his ideas to the Boston School Committee. Others shared his sentiments regarding compulsory education including people with such prominent names as—Sears, Pierce, Harris, Stowe, and Lancaster, all involved in creating universal school systems for the industrial powers.<sup>[319]</sup>

Edward Everett, a Boston native, studied theology after graduating from Harvard in 1811. He was ordained the pastor of Boston's Brattle Street Unitarian Church in 1814. He soon left and joined Harvard's staff where he had a special arrangement to travel to Europe for additional training before beginning his Harvard teaching assignment. He reportedly studied twelve to fourteen hours a day at the University of Göttingen, an Illuminati breeding ground, where he received a Ph.D. in 1817, the first American to receive that honor.<sup>[320]</sup> Eventually, 10,000 of America's wealthiest families sent their sons to

obtain Ph.D. degrees in Prussian universities. John Pierpont Morgan, Sr. studied at Göttingen beginning in 1856. Globalists, like Morgan, use both the left and the right dialectic; they fund both sides, often at the same time. <sup>[321]</sup>

## Pestalozzianism Comes to America

In 1818 Robert Owen, the acknowledged father of English Socialism, visited Pestalozzi and advocated his methods in Britain and the U.S. William Maclure, a wealthy Philadelphia scientist who had immigrated to the U.S. in 1796 endorsed Pestalozzi's methods. <sup>[322]</sup> Owen enlisted Maclure's assistance in perpetuating his teaching methods in the U.S. Maclure's protégé, Marie Fratageot, opened a school in Philadelphia. <sup>[323]</sup> Maclure offered to pay all of Pestalozzi's expenses to immigrate to America to establish his school system but Pestalozzi felt he was too old and did not speak English so he rejected the offer. But, at Maclure's urging, Joseph Neef (born Näef), a Pestalozzian teacher in Paris, came to the U.S. in 1806 and established schools in Pennsylvania, Kentucky, Indiana, and Ohio. Neef also participated in Owen's communitarian experiment at New Harmony. <sup>[324]</sup> In 1808, Neef published a *Sketch of a Plan and Method of Education*, the first American manual on the system of industrial education. <sup>[325]</sup>

In 1819, John Griscom wrote *A Year in Europe*, which received praise from Thomas Jefferson and other intellectuals. Griscom applauded the Prussian system. William Woodbridge wrote letters to the *American Journal of Education* in which he praised Pestalozzi for his teaching methods. Henry Dwight wrote *Travels in North Germany* in 1825, which praised the new Prussian teacher seminaries where prospective teachers "were screened for correct attitudes toward the State." <sup>[326]</sup>

In 1830, the French Government sent Victor Cousin to study Prussia's educational system. He had previously lived in Germany, had studied German philosophy, and was friends with Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel and Friedrich Wilhelm Joseph Schelling. In 1832, he published a two-volume report, which was readily accepted. In 1834, individuals translated the portion pertaining to the Prussian primary schools into English and titled a *Report on the State of Public Instruction in Prussia*. The U.S. educator, J. Orville Taylor said, "The volume should be welcomed by every American citizen." Thereafter, editors republished the report in New York in 1835 with a preface by Taylor. <sup>[327]</sup>

Taylor admitted that part of the system was incompatible to "the spirit and feelings of the American people" or "their form of government" but still gave a glowing recommendation despite those issues. He did not feel that the foundational political differences between Prussia and the U.S. should "prevent Americans from benefiting by the example set by Prussia." Cousin wrote, "The fact that the Prussian government is an absolute government in no way vitiates the value of the excellent law on education adopted in 1819." The U.S. abandoned national rivalries and cultural differences and systematically and gradually imposed an educational system designed to develop an acquiescent uncomplaining citizen. <sup>[328]</sup>

By the early 1800s, Ohio was wealthy and progressive. Ohio citizens had already considered establishing a public school system. In December 1837 Calvin E. Stowe, husband of Harriet Stowe and professor at Cincinnati's Lane Theological Seminary, spoke before the Convention of Teachers at Columbus. He promoted Cousin's ideas and advocated their acceptance, not only in Ohio but also in America. Individuals published his speech as *The Prussian System of Public Instruction and Its Applicability to the United States* with an introduction, "The truths brought out by Professor Stowe shall rescue this nation from the reproachful superiority of the monarchies and despotisms of Europe, and secure to our republic the triumphs of universal education." Stowe claimed the "enlightened and patriotic citizens of Ohio and other western states" should benefit from Prussia's experience. <sup>[329]</sup>

Stowe's report was printed and distributed to every school district in Ohio under the direction of the legislature. Stowe was more interested in Prussia's primary schools rather than the secondary schools,

inaccessible to most students. Individuals reprinted his report in Boston under the direction of the Massachusetts House of Representatives and in New York, Pennsylvania, and several other states.<sup>[330]</sup> Many individuals embraced the Prussian system. William Pierce, a Unitarian minister living near Rochester, New York, hurriedly left his ministry during the anti-Masonic commotion prior to the first Jackson election. His critics claimed he had concealed an Illuminati lodge within his church. He took all of his Illuminati paraphernalia and headed to Michigan where he soon organized the first State Superintendency of Education modeled after the Prussian system.<sup>[331]</sup>

Stowe advised, “Changes must be made slowly, the people must be prepared and educated for these changes, but the public men of Ohio have shown their readiness to further this good work.”<sup>[332]</sup> Ohio’s Governor Joseph Vance (1836-1838), a top level Freemason, promoted Prussia’s school system to the state legislature.<sup>[333]</sup> Two Freemasons preceded Vance as governor of Ohio, Duncan McArthur (1830-1832)<sup>[334]</sup> and Robert Lucas (1832-1836).<sup>[335]</sup> The Prussian system instituted compulsory attendance, student testing, classification for job placement, a national controlled curriculum and a mandatory kindergarten.

In 1819, Everett began teaching at Harvard and editing *North American Review*, founded in Boston in 1815, the nation’s leading literary magazine. By 1818, the magazine focused on issues such as improving society and enhancing the culture. It advocated the improvement of education, especially reforms within the secondary schools. Additionally, the magazine emphasized that well-educated experts should manage the U.S. government. Contributors included numerous New Englanders – John Adams, George Bancroft, Nathaniel Bowditch, William Cullen Bryant, Lewis Cass, Edward T. Channing, Caleb Cushing, Henry Dana, Sr., Alexander Hill Everett and his brother, Edward Everett, Jared Sparks and George Ticknor.

Citizens elected Everett to the U.S. House of Representatives (1825-1835). He returned to Massachusetts in 1836. Citizens then elected him as governor where he made significant changes in education. Everett, as governor, implemented the Prussian education system. He sought to transform Massachusetts into a public education laboratory. He created a state board of education to scrutinize schools and advocated the creation of schools to train teachers. He signed a law making it mandatory for all children under the age of fifteen to attend three months of day school.<sup>[336]</sup> Everett returned to Harvard as a professor and university president (1846-1849). He resigned from Harvard and became a confidential advisor to Secretary of State Daniel Webster. In October 1850, he drafted the Hülsemann note for Webster to present to the Chargé d’affaires in Washington D.C. in defense of President Taylor sending an agent to observe the activities of the Hungarian revolutionaries.<sup>[337]</sup> There was a huge influx of poor Irish Catholics into Massachusetts due to Ireland’s famine. In 1852, with Horace Mann’s support, Everett fully adopted the Prussian educational system in Massachusetts. Shortly thereafter, New York’s governor instituted the system in twelve New York schools on a trial basis.

## **Robert Owen, a Utopian Socialist**

Equality, as the founders viewed it, was not a government guarantee of equality of outcome but rather political equality. “Social and economic inequality within a free market society is a natural outcome of ability and effort.” The Marxists want mandatory equality, a very attractive option for the less fortunate. However, collectivist systems operate to enrich the rich and further impoverish the poor.

With the exception of Robert Owen (1771-1858), Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels did not have a high opinion of utopian socialists. Owen, a native of Wales, fused individual powers into a social and cultural collective power through the total reorganization of the family structure. Engels found Owen’s proposals as “the most practical and most fully worked out.”<sup>[338]</sup> The alternative version of the theory “from each according to his abilities, to each according to his needs” reads as equal obligation to labor, equal right in the product. Engels describes this rule, in a reference to Owen, as one feature of “the most clear-cut

communism possible.”<sup>[339]</sup> Morris Hillquit, a founder and leader of the Socialist Party of America and leading labor lawyer in New York City, in speaking of Owen, said, “He now arrived at the ultimate and logical deduction from that theory that an equal degree of morality and happiness presupposes equality in all material conditions of life. Owen had developed from a mere philanthropist into a full-fledged Communist.”<sup>[340]</sup>

Socialism and Communism are effective vehicles for gradually imposing the dictatorial Illuminati agenda. Author Robert Freedman, referring to the Enlightenment, often associated with the Illuminati, wrote, “We must win the common people in every corner. This will be obtained chiefly by means of the schools, and by open, hearty behavior, show, condescension, popularity, and toleration of their prejudices, which we shall at leisure root out and dispel.” The Enlightenment influenced three middle class utopians, the Comte Henri de Saint-Simon, François Fourier, and Robert Owen. They viewed their mission as the universal enlightenment of humankind.<sup>[341]</sup>

Robert Owen settled in Manchester, England in 1787 where he worked for a wholesale draper. The word draper is an obsolete term for a wholesaler or retailer of cloth, mainly for clothing. While English writers and scholars focused on the French Revolution, he concentrated on the industrial transformation in Manchester and devised a plan to implement societal change by non-aggressive, more subtle tactics than the forceful tactics that the people behind the Paris mobs staged.<sup>[342]</sup> By 1793, Owen was prominent in the growing textile industry and had numerous local connections therein. He attended his first meeting of the Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society on October 4, 1793.<sup>[343]</sup> The Society, possibly an Illuminati front, was popular with Manchester’s textile industrialists,

Owen presented at least four papers before the Society, one on improvements in the cotton trade, the business that Nathan Rothschild would engage in when he moved to Manchester a few years later.<sup>[344]</sup> Owen and Thomas Walker, a leading cotton merchant and political reformer, were both members of an elite steering committee for the Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society. By the time Owen began attending society meetings, Thomas Cooper, the future South Carolina Secessionist agitator was getting ready to go to America. However, for a short period they knew each other and might have shared similar views. Owen, a Utopian Socialist, developed his ideas of a “New View of Society” and a theoretical framework for education, which he introduced at New Lanark, after taking over the management of the Scottish mills in January 1800.<sup>[345]</sup> New Lanark was about 1.4 miles from Lanark, in South Lanarkshire, Scotland.

In 1795, Mayer A. Rothschild hired a French citizen, Seligmann Geisenheimer, an “Enlightenment” Jew, as his chief bookkeeper. He spoke five languages fluently, was a Freemason and a disciple of the philosophies of Moses Mendelssohn, the father of European Communism, and Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi (1746-1827), a member of the Illuminati and the architect of modern education.<sup>[346]</sup> Mayer Rothschild’s father hoped that his son would be a rabbi but Mayer. Though he was devoted to the Talmud, he chose to be a merchant and moneychanger.<sup>[347]</sup> Mayer and his son Salomon (initiated into Freemasonry on June 14, 1809)<sup>[348]</sup> had membership in the illuminated Frankfurt Judenloge, along with other local Jews with the surnames of Adler, Speyer, Reisse, Sichel, Ellison, Hanau, Goldschmidt and Geisenheimer, Rothschild’s new chief bookkeeper. One of the lodge’s founders, in addition to Geisenheimer, was Isaac Hildesheim, a merchant in English textiles. James Mayer Rothschild of the Paris branch of the banking family was a 33rd degree Freemason allied with the French Supreme Council.<sup>[349]</sup>

Rothschild and his new bookkeeper, Geisenheimer promoted public education which would provide a uniform education for each student. Wealthy families enrolled their children in private schools outside of the ghetto but poorer families relied on their own teaching abilities, augmented by a religious education under the direction of the local rabbi. Geisenheimer and Rothschild established the Philantropin, a school

for Jewish children, ostensibly to “spread the love of mankind.” Despite the appeal of free education, some parents opposed the idea of relinquishing their children to other people for instruction. Orthodox rabbis bitterly opposed this new educational approach. Rothschild and Geisenheimer modeled their scholastic program after Pestalozzi, a member of the Illuminati and the father of modern education. They also “enlightened” the children with the socialist ideas of Voltaire (François-Marie Arouet), Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Gotthold Ephraim Lessing, Johann Gottfried von Herder, and Moses Mendelssohn. Mayer’s eldest son financially supported the school throughout his life.<sup>[350]</sup>

Robert Owen, by now a wealthy Manchester industrialist, visited some of the best experimental schools – Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi at Yverdon, Switzerland and Philipp Emanuel von Fellenberg at Hofwyl, Switzerland. Owen sent his sons, Robert Dale and William to Fellenberg, a Pestalozzi disciple. Several Swiss reformers and two American reformers, John Griscom and William Maclure visited Owen’s community at New Lanark to view the results of his ideas.<sup>[351]</sup> Owen published *A Statement Regarding the New Lanark Establishment* in 1812. Nicholas I (1796-1855) who ruled Russia (1825-1855), sympathetic to the peasants, visited New Lanark to evaluate Owen’s socialistic schemes.<sup>[352]</sup>

On August 27, 1806, Owen with John Walker, his associate and translator were bound for conferences in Frankfurt and Aachen in North Rhine-Westphalia, Germany, where he would present his socialistic community ideas to the European monarchs. Festivities began in Frankfurt, with lavish dinners, conferences, and receptions. On September 7, 1806, Owen met Friedrich von Gentz, a Freemason who facilitated the Frankfurt events, at a dinner given by Bethmann Brothers Bank. Two brothers, Johann Philipp Bethmann and Simon Moritz Bethmann established the Gebrüder Bethmann Bank using an inheritance from their uncle who had raised them after the death of their father. Gentz, speaking for the bankers, said, “We do not want the mass to become wealthy and independent of us. How could we govern them if they were?” Attendees included political representatives and bankers from Prussia, Austria and other independent German states. Participants included Prince Klemens Metternich, Karl August von Hardenberg, Ioannis Kapodistrias, and bankers, John Parish, Simon Moritz von Bethmann and Mayer A. Rothschild, who may have already embraced Illuminism and was promoting an equal education by means of a public school, as advocated by Pestalozzi.<sup>[353]</sup>

Rothschild attended Owen’s presentation, to hear his ideas about societal change. Owen had sufficient copies of his philosophical work, *New View of Society*, published in German, French and English. His objectives were to present “the most important truths for man to know in order that nations might be peacefully reformed and united under the new system.” In Frankfurt, he was more moderate than in previous presentations. He did not attack religion, priests, marriage, private property, or lawyers but elaborated on the production advantages of the new “mechanical power,” the industrial age technology, a conduit to further riches, for the wealthy, of course. The existing capital system, with increased production and unequal distribution, limits benefits, which create social unrest. Consequently, he advocated a system of shared equality. However, instead of revolution, certain prominent individuals could subtly persuade the people.<sup>[354]</sup> They could impose Communism without force.

Owen stressed the importance of early (pre-school, kindergarten), even infant education. He used Pestalozzi’s methods in his Institute for the Formation of Character, established in New Lanark on January 1, 1816. He believed that children should be well adjusted and happy, which according to him, meant docile, a word that recurs in much of his writing.<sup>[355]</sup> Part of Owen’s utopian philosophy incorporated Pestalozzi’s system of education. His son Robert Dale Owen wrote *Outline of the System of Education at New Lanark* (1824).

Owen, even as optimistic as he was, recognized that a community of equality, based on lofty and liberal principles, could only emerge after years of educational training in the principles of the *new world order*.

Owen claimed that skilled teachers could gradually wean students away from “the errors and prejudices that had existed since the time of Adam.” People would have to abandon the ideas and associations of the selfish individual system before they could participate in a community like his.<sup>[356]</sup>

Owen, in an effort to bring his socialism to the U.S., paid \$132,000 for land and \$50,000 for livestock, tools, and merchandise for his New Harmony, Indiana project. He gave a speech before the U.S. Congress explaining this new way of life where people could live and work together without the normal human foibles and exploitations. About a thousand people joined him at New Harmony on the Wabash River. Author and poet Carl Sandburg (1878-1967), an advocate of the Owen community and one of Lincoln’s most effective sanitizing biographers, wrote in *Abe Lincoln, the Prairie Years* that when Lincoln heard about the New Harmony project, his heart lit up.<sup>[357]</sup>

Author Al Benson Jr. points out that Sandburg failed to mention that Owen was an avid Socialist and that the group in New Harmony was practicing socialism. Sandburg was married to schoolteacher, Lillian Steichen, also an ardent socialist. Carl Sandburg was a secretary (1910-1912) to Milwaukee’s socialist mayor, Emil Seidel, the first Socialist mayor of a major city. Sandburg campaigned for presidential candidate Eugene V. Debs during one of the many times that Debs ran for the U.S. presidency. Therefore, given Sandburg’s own socialist sympathies, there was good reason for him to omit all information about the “great emancipator’s” prodigious socialist tendencies and policies. Sandburg produced a six-volume biography on Lincoln.<sup>[358]</sup>

Robert Owen gave a speech in New Harmony on July 4, 1826, in which he referred to the American Revolution as the first opportunity to use political power to attack the “trinity” of evils, “private or individual property, absurd and irrational systems of religion, and marriage, founded on individual property combined with some one of these irrational systems of religion.” Ultimately, to appease the growing number of critics, he suggested that people adopt a universal “Rational Religion” founded on the idea that “truth is nature, and nature God; that God is truth, and truth is God.”<sup>[359]</sup>

During the 1820s and 1830s, Owen inspired the founding of approximately nineteen co-operative colonies. In the 1840s, Albert Brisbane, Charles Fourier’s U.S. disciple, experienced the hopeful beginning and the discouraging ending of over forty Fourierist phalanxes (a utopian community organized on proto-communist Fourierist principles). Socialist experiments flourished sporadically over a period of forty years as an alternative to the problems of inequitable production and distribution resulting from monopoly capitalism. With every industrial crisis and the failure of trade unions to make material differences, people sought a solution. After Lincoln’s War, labor conditions and living standards for farmers and workers declined.<sup>[360]</sup> The “order out of chaos” advocates were simply moving the U.S. populace closer to socialism without mentioning the consequences. Socialism, then and now, appeals to workers who are struggling to maintain their families and households during economic depressions.

Friedrich Engels’ (1820-1895) father, a German textile manufacturer, sent his son to Manchester in 1842 to learn business management in his father’s factory, Ermen and Engels. Manchester was a part of Lancashire, the textile center of England.<sup>[361]</sup> On November 16, 1842, on his way to England, Engels stopped at the *Rheinische Zeitung* (founded January 1, 1842) to meet Karl Heinrich Marx for the first time. Both Marx and Engels were children of privilege who devised a pattern to implement socialism despite human will.<sup>[362]</sup> Because of Engels’ observations over the next two years, he wrote *The Condition of the Working Class in England in 1844*. Engels, who had studied Hegel’s philosophy, associated with trade unionists, Chartists, and Socialists, including Robert Owen’s followers. Engels met Owen and wrote articles for his newspaper, the *New Moral World*.<sup>[363]</sup>

*Engels and Marx both studied Weishaupt and Illuminism. Engels described Owen as “a man of almost sublime, childlike character, one of the few born leaders of men.” He added, “Every social movement*

and real advance in England on behalf of the workers links with the name of Robert Owen.” The Owenites had a significant presence in Manchester. By 1850, they built the Hall of Science at Campfield at a cost of £7,000 where socialists presented lectures on a regular basis.<sup>[364]</sup>

Robert Dale Owen, son of Robert Owen, emigrated to the U.S. and ultimately settled in New York City and established his own Hall of Science in a ramshackle old church in New York City in April 1829.<sup>[365]</sup> He advocated his father’s ideas in the U.S., supported Susan B. Anthony, and associated with British Illuminist Frances “Fanny” Wright, an avowed atheist who had arrived in the U.S. in 1818 and promoted her philosophies throughout the country from 1820 to 1835.

Owen wrote *Moral Physiology*, the first book in the U.S. to advocate birth control via coitus interruptus. He and Wright conducted a series of lectures on social reform at the Hall of Science. They collaborated with two brothers, George Henry and Frederick W. Evans who arrived in New York in 1820 from Britain. Together, they published the *Working Man’s Advocate*, the *Daily Sentinel* and *Young America* all of which were very popular. *Young America* promoted “Equal rights for women with men in all respects,” and “Abolition of chattel slavery and of wages slavery.”<sup>[366]</sup> They began promoting equal rights for women in 1825, which became part of Ezekiel Williams’ platform when he ran for governor.<sup>[367]</sup>

Wright and Owen co-edited the newspaper, *Free Enquirer* in New York City. In 1829, Wright was the featured speaker at a secret Illuminati meeting in New York and addressed issues such as equal rights, atheism, and free love. She advocated the establishment of a Women’s Auxiliary of the Illuminati. The speakers informed the attendees about the Illuminati’s international movement in which people would know the proponents as Communists. Their foundational philosophy was the fomentation of warfare and chaos to induce the masses to accept a one-world government. People would be so exhausted and demoralized by revolution that when the Illuminati promised peace, people would embrace the idea of regulated order.<sup>[368]</sup>

Robert Dale Owen was instrumental in the development of an early socialistic labor movement and the early women’s movement. The socialist movement produced several influential writers who addressed economic issues. Langdon Byllesby (1789-1871) wrote *Observations of the Sources and Effects of Unequal Wealth*, which he published in New York in 1826. Thomas Skidmore wrote *The Rights of Man to Property* in 1829. Both writers were Utopian Socialists. Their analysis of the modern industrial system and the effects on labor clearly spelled out the concepts of modern socialism.<sup>[369]</sup>

About 600 newspapers in various parts of country endorsed these philosophies. Robert Dale Owen used the media publicity to elevate himself into politics. He served in the Indiana House of Representatives twice (1835–1838; 1851–1853). Residents elected him to Congress (1842-1847) during which time he drafted the legislation to establish the Smithsonian Institution in Washington. As a member of the Indiana Constitutional Convention, he was instrumental in enacting the provisions for woman’s rights and initiated the free-school system in Indiana.

Horace Greeley arrived in New York in 1831. He and Langdon Byllesby promoted the Owenite Socialistic Community system. Greeley, in his lecture *Social Architects* and Byllesby’s *Sources and Effects of Unequal Wealth* both advocated Robert Owen’s economic views. Greeley knew him. In 1848, the elderly Owen went to Paris during the 1848 Revolution to assist Louis Blanc and others in the development of Political Socialism. A few weeks prior to his death, he attended the convention of the Social Science Association in Liverpool.<sup>[370]</sup> In 1851, Greeley celebrated Owen’s 80<sup>th</sup> birthday with him and other friends at the Colbourne Hotel in London. Owen was a devout Socialist until he died on November 17, 1858.

## Before Marx, there was Roosevelt

In 1841, Clinton Roosevelt, son of Elbert Cornelius Roosevelt (1767-1857)<sup>[371]</sup> of the New York banking family, wrote *The Science of Government Founded on Natural Law* in an effort to implement the

Illuminati plan for the U.S. The book advocated a network of highly structured, regulated communities. Roosevelt integrated a conspiratorial framework to communize the U.S. population and gradually eliminate the U.S. Constitution. Horace Greeley and Charles Dana, of the *New York Tribune*, and Roosevelt were directed, along with a select committee to raise funds for the enterprise which was also being financed by the Rothschilds.

Roosevelt (1804-1898), a distant cousin of Franklin and Theodore, may have inspired Franklin Roosevelt's New Deal and the National Recovery Act. He apparently derived many of his ideas from the numerous works of Johann Adam Weishaupt, who revised Illuminism with the objective of world domination. In 1835, Roosevelt founded the Equal Rights Party in New York City, also known as the Loco-Foco Party (1835-1845). He ran for Congress as a member of the Equal Rights Party.<sup>[372]</sup> Party members, including poet Walter Whitman, came from the anti-Tammany Democrats and the Working Men's Party.

The Loco-Focos, a radical political faction of the Democrat Party, possibly an Illuminati front organization, was largely active in the Northeast. The dogma of the Working Man's Party (1828-1830) greatly influenced the radicals in the Loco-Focos. These parties merged into the Equal Rights Party in 1833 and eventually became the Socialist Party in 1901.<sup>[373]</sup>

Roosevelt claimed that there was no difference in the most predominant national economic principles of Adam Smith who wrote *The Wealth of Nations* (1776) and the principles of Francis Wayland, a Baptist Minister and Brown University President (1827-1855) and Frances Wright, feminist, abolitionist, and social reformer and Robert Dale Owen (1801-1877). Adam Smith promoted free trade and equalization of nations. Wright and both Robert Owen and his son, Robert Dale Owen embraced those same general principles.<sup>[374]</sup> Wright's father, James Wright, a wealthy linen manufacturer and political radical, knew Adam Smith, one of the key figures of the Scottish Enlightenment.

Roosevelt wrote, "In view of all we thus behold, does not the dreadful thought come home to our understandings, that there is no God of justice to order things aright on earth; if there be a God, he is a malicious and revengeful being, who created us for misery." Further he wrote, "Thus, false ideas of God and man, and the interests of society, prevail, and misery is the consequence. Of course the wiser men become, the better can they read the reason of the laws of nature's God, and the higher the ideas they then form of Deity." He thought that the Constitution was ineffective for the majority and only served the needs of a few.<sup>[375]</sup> Nikita Sergeyevich Khrushchev maintained that the task of the Communist atheists was to "liberate" the religious "God-fearers" from their God. Contemporary Marxism is really Illuminism.<sup>[376]</sup>

Roosevelt, an Illuminist philosopher, in his book, defined the Illuminist strategy for supervising the world's population through the management of enlightened people like him.<sup>[377]</sup> According to David Rivera and Des Griffin, members of the Illuminati established the Columbia Lodge of the Illuminati in New York City in 1785. Some of the members of this lodge included Governor DeWitt Clinton, Horace Greeley, editor of the *New York Daily Tribune*, Charles Dana, and Roosevelt.<sup>[378]</sup>

In 1843, journalist Heinrich Heine, in the *Augsburg Gazette*, wrote of the Illuminati, "Communism is the secret name of this tremendous adversary which the rule of the proletariat, with all that implies, opposes to the existing bourgeois regime ... Communism is nonetheless the dark hero, cast for an enormous if fleeting role in the modern tragedy, and awaiting its cue to enter the stage."<sup>[379]</sup>

Karl Marx (Moses Mordecai Marx Levy, 1818-1883), the presumed father of Communism, was born into a religious Jewish family who converted to Christianity right before his birth. He apparently was once a devoted Christian but later referred to Christianity as the most immoral of religions.<sup>[380]</sup>

Marx wrote, "We must war against all prevailing ideas of religion, of the state, of country, of patriotism.

The idea of God is the keynote of a perverted civilization. It must be destroyed.” He became intent on warring against and destroying biblically based ideology regarding man’s inherent rights, the reasons for borders and sovereignty and the sanctity of the family. He even disdained his own family, which he utterly failed to provide for; they suffered because of his hateful doctrines. Two daughters and a son-in-law committed suicide. Three of his children perished from malnutrition. Marx, the spokesperson for the working person, fathered a child with his personal maid, a gift from his wealthy mother-in-law. Meanwhile he condemned those who were prosperous enough to have maids while he and his family subsisted from the generosity of others.<sup>[381]</sup>

Marx obtained a Doctorate in Philosophy in 1841 but could not get a teaching job because of his revolutionary activities. Marx, a Jew wrote *A World without Jews* in 1844 and in 1867, he wrote *Das Kapital*. He derived many of his ideas from Weishaupt, François-Noël Babeuf, Louis Blanc, Étienne Cabet, Robert Owen, William Ogilvie, Thomas Hodgkin, John Gray, Robert Thompson, William Carpenter, and Clinton Roosevelt. Marx befriended socialists Mikhail Bakunin, (founder of collectivist anarchism)<sup>[382]</sup> Moses Hess, and Pierre Proudhon.<sup>[383]</sup> Author Nesta Webster wrote, “So identical are many of these theories with those of Weishaupt that it is impossible not to believe that, like Bakunin, he had fallen under the spell of Illuminism and was consciously working for the sect that had as its object the ‘universal revolution which should deal the deathblow to society.’”<sup>[384]</sup>

By 1836, a few radical German workers, living in Paris, organized a secret society called the League of the Just, financed by the Illuminati. In early 1847, Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels agreed to join the League only if the group reorganized as a more democratic society. Engels helped to devise the new regulations and a new name, the Communist League and the new motto, “Working Men of All Countries, Unite!” Article 1 reads, “The League aims at the emancipation of humanity by spreading the theory of the community of property and its speediest possible practical introduction.”

The League commissioned Marx and Engels, both 32<sup>nd</sup> degree Freemasons, to draft a manifesto. Engels wrote the first draft and Marx revised it. The *Communist Manifesto*, published in 1848, appeared just prior to numerous revolts throughout Europe. It functioned as a clarion call to arms and a demand for reform for Europe’s oppressed and generated notoriety for Marx throughout Europe. It was the most widely read and influential document of modern socialism. Publishers first printed it in the U.S. and then translated it for people in Poland, Russia, Switzerland, Denmark, Germany, and Italy. It defined his theories of class struggle and his efforts to unify all socialist factions to fight oppression and organize for revolutionary change.<sup>[385]</sup>

The *Communist Manifesto*, a virtual blueprint for elitist control, resembles *Principes du Socialisme: Manifeste de la Deocratie au Dix Neuvieme Siecle*, first published in 1843 by French utopian Socialist Victor Prosper Considérant, a disciple of Charles Fourier and later a member of the First International. He had to go into exile in Belgium in June 1849 when the opposition to Louis Napoléon failed in Paris. He published his book again in 1847 when Marx and Engels were living in Paris.<sup>[386]</sup> Engels, in his first draft of the *Communist Manifesto*, seems to have also borrowed heavily from Roosevelt’s book, *The Science of Government Founded on Natural Law*. These works, with obvious commonality, emanate from the same Illuminati source.

Marx edited the *Neue Rheinische Zeitung* from 1848 to 1849 in Cologne where the authorities charged him with “press offenses” that incited revolution. Readership of the paper increased and was viewed as dangerous by the authorities. His fiery articles caused the paper to lose money. Ultimately, when Marx urged people to resist paying taxes, public officials suppressed the newspaper and the police arrested him for sedition.<sup>[387]</sup> Officials arrested him after the four-day battle that ended the revolution in Paris in June 1848. During his trial, he delivered a passionate address to the jury on politics, history, and economics.

Members of the jury were extremely impressed; they found him innocent of all charges. The British government allowed Marx and his family to immigrate. They arrived in London on August 24, 1849. Engels arrived a month later. Marx continued his attempts to provoke another European revolution. He also continued his campaign against the French Republic.<sup>[388]</sup>

Charles A. Dana hired Karl Marx as a correspondent for Horace Greeley's *New York Tribune*. He submitted over 500 articles from 1851 through 1861. In conjunction with these efforts, Greeley, because of his political aspirations and interests, assisted with the organization of the Republican Party in 1854.<sup>[389]</sup> Reportedly, Greeley and Roosevelt both contributed money to the Communist League in London in 1949 to help with the publication of the *Communist Manifesto*. The London Rothschilds reputedly also contributed several thousand pounds to fund Marx's efforts.

Zbigniew Brzezinski, President Jimmy Carter's Special Assistant for National Security, Director of the Research Institute on International Change, Professor of Public Law and Government, and a member of the Russian Institute, all headquartered at Columbia University, wrote *Between Two Ages*, in which he praised Marxism.<sup>[390]</sup> He wrote, "That is why Marxism represents a further vital and creative stage in the maturing of man's universal vision. Marxism is simultaneously a victory of the external, active man over the inner, passive man and a victory of reason over belief: it stresses man's capacity to shape his material destiny—finite and defined as man's only reality—and it postulates the absolute capacity of man to truly understand his reality as a point of departure for his active endeavors to shape it. To a greater extent than any previous mode of political thinking, Marxism puts a premium on the systematic and rigorous examination of material reality and on guides to action derived from that examination."<sup>[391]</sup>

Marx's Manifesto mandated a graduated income tax, the removal of all rights to inheritance, a central bank, centralized communication and transportation systems, the cultivation of wastelands, free public education, and abolition of child labor. Some of his directives appealed to the bourgeoisie who also wanted some of these reforms. Marx did not demand land nationalization, which would have alienated many wealthy landowners and farmers whose support he was seeking.<sup>[392]</sup>

# Hegelian Dialectics, Order Out of Chaos

## A Device to Divide

Ordo Ad Chao is the Latin phrase for Order out of Chaos. According to basic Illuminati or higher Masonic dogma, the New World Order will result after a period of choreographed chaos, which the state will probably implement through war and bloodshed. Masonic initiates who progress and ultimately attain the 33rd degree receive a jewel with the inscription “Ordo Ad Chao,” surrounded with three interlocking triangles. Professor Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel, a Freemason and a political and social scientist at the University of Berlin (1817-1831), maintained that man could shape history and achieve ultimate peace only through repetitive episodes of controlled conflict between opposing forces. Hegel advocated the idea that men must create, manipulate and manage that conflict in order to create a pre-determined outcome – the controlled change, the synthesis.<sup>[393]</sup>

Hegel’s philosophy, endorsed by numerous high-level politicians, proposes that ultimate peace comes only through conflict. A clash between ideologies (thesis and antithesis) is supposedly a normal historical phenomenon, which always results in compromise (synthesis) that purportedly advances civilization to a higher level of order. In other words, rhetorical conflict and physical warfare are essential for ultimate peace achieved by a one world order or globalization. Author David Icke, who has proffered some reasonable ideas in addition to some rather bizarre notions, simplifies the process with the term – Problem, Reaction, Solution (P-R-S). It is the most effective of all of the manipulation techniques used by the elite, some of who endorse Illuminati principles whether they are actually aware of their objectives or not. Icke wrote, “...they secretly create a problem while blaming someone else; next they tell the population through an unquestioning media a false version of the problem... they manipulate a public reaction of fear, outrage, and demands that something be done; this allows those who have covertly engineered the problem to then openly offer the solution – changes in society that they wanted all along. This works so well that people who would have opposed those changes before the problem will either accept them without protest, or even campaign for them as a solution to the problem. Look how often we hear people say in these situations, ‘we don’t want to see freedoms restricted, but after what has happened we have no choice.’”<sup>[394]</sup>

The perpetrators create or allow a problem to develop and escalate which will provoke a predictable reaction from the populace who will then demand a predetermined solution, something the government wanted to implement but a resolution that the people would not have accepted without the crisis. Numerous historical circumstances and seemingly spontaneous events come to mind – massive centralization of powers in Washington followed Lincoln’s War. Roosevelt’s Socialistic “New Deal” followed the stock market crash of 1929. It was supposed to be a temporary fix, to alleviate economic desperation but instead the individuals behind Roosevelt’s program imposed permanent socialistic programs. Proposals of a global entity guaranteeing peace followed both world wars. After World War I, the elites proposed the League of Nations and then following World War II, they advocated the United Nations. The PATRIOT Act, Homeland Security and more suppressive government regulation and restrictions followed the attacks of September 11, 2001. Rahm Israel Emanuel and other Hegelians share a common philosophy. He said in November 2008, “You never let a serious crisis go to waste. And what I mean by that it’s an opportunity to do things you think you could not do before.” A manufactured or orchestrated crisis is the means to massive government spending and regulation and enormous public indebtedness.

Media propaganda is essential to the political perpetuation of controlled conflict. Edward Bernays wrote, “Propaganda will never die out. Intelligent men must realize that propaganda is the modern instrument by

which they can fight for productive ends and help to bring order out of chaos.”<sup>[395]</sup>

Hegel incorporated the theology of Martin Luther who claimed that Christians should render complete obedience to an authoritative State. Luther taught, “According to Scripture, it is in no wise proper for anyone who would be a Christian to set himself against his government, whether it acts justly or unjustly, but a Christian ought to endure oppression and injustice, especially at the hands of his government.”<sup>[396]</sup> Luther, possibly citing Romans 13, and Hegel alleged that the State was empowered by God and absolutely warranted obedience. The State would grant individuals, based on their compliance to regulations, certain privileges and freedoms.

With Hegelian Dialectics, it is possible to achieve mass population management. Hegel clearly defined his philosophical/political concepts that people refer to as Hegelianism. Hegel developed, enlarged and thoroughly explained the tactical maneuver of divide-and-conquer. Individuals, knowledgeable about this diabolical divide-and-conquer methodology can distinguish its use in numerous events and supposedly spontaneous current events. It is obviously a part of the electoral process wherein candidates square off and pretend to oppose each other while receiving money from the same banker-backed corporations. We witness the Hegelian dialectical in the so-called liberal versus conservative media. The same elites, from different sides of the conference table, sponsor both sides. In public, they simply pretend to be in opposition. We witness this controlled conflict in race and gender relationships – the whites and blacks against each, and men and women competing against one another. Then there are the rhetorical religious wars, Christians and Muslims contending over observations and practices. The citizens resent the illegal aliens. Before that, it was the Communists and the Capitalists allegedly fighting ideology while financially enhancing the military, industrial complex. Who do you think created both political/economic ideologies and set up all of the details and circumstances of all of these squabbles. While individuals dispute over partisan politics, Democratic or Republican, they predictably ignore the despicable people who are really managing the egregious legislative programs and policies of both parties.

The essence of Hegel’s dialectical process was evident in the war in America between 1861 and 1865 and every war following that bloody conflict. Certain people in the North challenged secession with the faulty concept that they could achieve the preservation of the Union only through force and physical conflict. Agent provocateurs strategically positioned in the South promoted secession for more than three decades. The two opposing sides were ultimately reconciled into a strong centralized government. Like spectators at a tennis match, the populace is so distracted by the contrived contentious confrontations that we fail to perceive the foundational motives behind the conflict charade. Hidden forces create a crisis for which the public demands solutions. That solution instigates premeditated government changes previously unacceptable by the people. It is Order out of Chaos! Lincoln’s War, deliberately misnamed as a civil war, functioned to solidify and increase power in Washington and minimize personal freedoms in a continuing serial process of crisis, compromise and solution.

Following the Battle of Jena (October 14, 1806), Hegel completed *Phenomenology of Spirit*, which provided an important development in Kant-style idealism. He viewed the battle as “the end of the history” and part of an evolution towards a “universal homogeneous state,” a one world government. His work reveals his philosophy, including the Master-slave dialectic. Communism and Fascism employ Hegel’s philosophy, the left and right, liberal and conservative and republican and democrat. The Right Hegelians are frequently militaristic and may include Lincoln, Eisenhower, and both the Bush presidents (Skull and Bones). The Left Hegelians appeal to poor and exploited populations by advocating socialism and communism, without reference to ideology. Left Hegelians may include Franklin D. Roosevelt, Obama, and the Clintons. Either right or left, the State reigns supreme over the individual as both sides embrace the same philosophic roots.<sup>[397]</sup>

Karl Marx and Arthur Schopenhauer both received doctorates at the University of Jena. Marx infused Hegel's theories with the theories of Ludwig Andreas von Feuerbach who studied at the University of Berlin under Hegel. Marx associated with the Young Hegelians, a group of Prussian intellectuals, also known as the Left Hegelians, who interpreted Hegel's dialectics to indicate that existing traditions, especially Christianity would be superseded. Feuerbach influenced Marx in the development of his own dialectic. Marx, from 1841 to 1844, was a Feuerbachian, but with distinct reservations – he criticized Feuerbach's repudiation of Hegel's dialectical method, which caused other contemporaries to temporarily dismiss it. By 1844, Marx and Engels co-authored *Die Heilige Familie (The Holy Family)* about philosophy of “real humanism,” because of Feuerbach's influence on Marx.<sup>[398]</sup> Feuerbach, who all the budding atheistic Marxist communists followed, wrote, “Man alone is our God, our father, our judge, our redeemer, our true home, our law and our rule, the Alpha and Omega of our life and of our political, moral, public and domestic activity. There is no salvation, save through the medium of man.”<sup>[399]</sup>

Adam Weishaupt wrote, “By this plan we shall direct all mankind...and by the simplest means, we shall set all in motion and in flames...that we may, in secret, influence all political transactions.”<sup>[400]</sup> “Right” and “left” are “artificial devices” to provoke change and are important essentials in transforming society. Hegelians, to provide conflict, support ostensibly opposing political parties – right or left wing, notwithstanding, each “side” shares the same foundational philosophical system, despite their superficial differences. They have chosen rival tactics to achieve the same result. Whether one endorses the left or the right, Obama or another Bush clone, the objective is the same – ultimate supremacy of the state and the total obedience of the citizens.<sup>[401]</sup>

On May 31, 2007, war hawk and depopulation advocate Henry Kissinger, a prominent Freemason and Illuminatus, spoke at the Akbank Conference in Istanbul, Turkey and stated, “The outcome in Iraq will depend on something that a German philosopher, Immanuel Kant said... someday there will be universal peace. The only question is whether it comes about through human insight, or whether it comes about... through a series of catastrophes of such a magnitude that people are so exhausted that they have no other choice.”<sup>[402]</sup> This is pure Illuminati dogma.

## **The Genesis of the Worldwide Media Trust**

Abbott Joseph Liebling said, “Freedom of the press is guaranteed only to those who own one.” Adam Weishaupt said, “...we may turn the public mind which way we will.”<sup>[403]</sup>

### **Telegraph Technology**

Johann Carl Friedrich Gauss (1777-1855) attended the Collegium Carolinum, now Technische Universität Braunschweig (1792-1795) and then studied at the University of Göttingen (1795-1798). Gauss, a brilliant German mathematician, became a professor of Astronomy and director of the observatory at the University of Göttingen, Lionel Nathan de Rothschild's alma mater. Not only was he “the Prince of Mathematicians,” he was an exceptional scientist who contributed to number theory, statistics, analysis, differential geometry, geodesy, geophysics, electrostatics, astronomy and optics. Gauss, a child prodigy, by age twenty-one, in 1798, completed *Disquisitiones Arithmeticae* (Arithmetical Investigations) which he published in 1801. His work consolidated number theory as a serious discipline and shaped the mathematical sciences of today.

In 1831, Gauss collaborated with Wilhelm Weber, the physics professor, working with magnetism (the unit of magnetism in terms of mass, length and time) in conjunction with Kirchhoff's circuit laws in electricity. In 1833, they constructed the first electromechanical telegraph and connected the observatory with the institute for physics in Göttingen. Gauss instructed the workers to build a magnetic observatory in the garden of the observatory. He and Weber founded the magnetischer Verein (magnetic club) to

substantiate the measurements of the earth's magnetic field in several areas throughout the world. Gauss developed a way of measuring the horizontal intensity of the magnetic field and devised the mathematical theory for separating the inner (core and crust) and outer (magnetospheric) sources of Earth's magnetic field.

In 1833, Gauss and Weber installed the first operational electromagnetic telegraph between the Paulinerkirche, the historic city center of Göttingen and the observatory. This invention is the foundation for electronic data transmission, which now encompasses fax, text messaging, and the Internet. In 1833, Israel Beer Josephat (1816-1899), a 17-year-old Rabbi's son, from Kassel, had just moved to Göttingen to start an apprenticeship at his uncle's bank.<sup>[404]</sup> In addition to his banking apprenticeship, he evaluated, deliberated and worked on a way of exploiting Gauss and Weber's invention to improve communications. Certain people have a propensity, a skill that they have finely tuned wherein they, like predatory parasites or leeches, extract and exploit the ingeniousness of others for their own benefit and potential profits. Thereafter, they utilized the technology and the resulting profits to manipulate and control the populace.

Josephat immigrated to Britain on October 29, 1845, where he called himself Joseph Josephat. A Lutheran priest baptized him as a Christian on November 16, 1845. He changed his name to Paul Julius Reuter during the ceremony at St. George's German Lutheran Chapel in London. A week later, Reuter married Ida Maria Elizabeth Clementine Magnus. In 1847, they left London and went to Berlin where he bought into a bookstore that Joseph A. Stargardt originally started in 1830, which he sold to another individual before Reuter entered the picture. Reuter retained the name, Reuter and Stargardt and then began providing published materials in support of a socialist revolution, which started in Germany with large demonstrations on March 13, 1848. Because of his provocative publishing of several political pamphlets, he had to flee to Paris where he worked in the Charles-Louis Havas' (1783-1858), news agency, Agence Havas, established in 1835. In 1850, he went to Aachen (North Rhine-Westphalia) and founded a news agency and a pigeon post service to bridge a gap in the telegraph line between Aachen and Verviers, Belgium. He also used the central telegraphic transmission until communications between the two nations ended about a year later.

In early 1851, Werner Siemens advised Reuter to relocate to London where they were constructing a cable under the English Channel. In April 1851, Reuter wrote to N. M. Rothschild and Son in London with a proposal, "Should you favour our service for the transmission of the Berlin and Vienna exchange rates we would pledge ourselves not to give the service to any other London house and moreover we would refund you for any cable not arriving at the fixed time."<sup>[405]</sup> In June 1851, Reuter returned to London, the safe haven of several other refugees who fled from European countries after participating in revolutionary activities against their governments. On October 10, 1851, he established a telegraph office near the London Stock Exchange. He transmitted market quotations between London and Paris using the new telegraph cable under the English Channel that opened on November 13, 1851.

On 17 March 1857, Reuter became a naturalized British subject. By 1858, he had persuaded the *London Times* and other newspapers to subscribe and publish his news dispatches. His service became indispensable to the entire British media. In February 1865, Reuter reorganized as Reuter's Telegram as a joint stock company which he solely managed. He sold shares and personally pocketed £65,000. Bankers and traders, in India and China, comprised the board of directors of the new company. He intended to open the Asian market to his wire service.<sup>[406]</sup> On April 26, 1865, Reuters was the first European news agency to report Lincoln's assassination. He opened an agency in Alexandria, Egypt. He laid telegraph cables across the North Sea to reach Germany and France and then started service to the U.S. He had service to the Far East by 1872 and to South America by 1874.

Reuter's principle competitors were *Havas* of France and *Wolff* of Germany. Dr. Bernhard Wolff, son of a

Jewish banker founded Wolff's Telegraphisches Bureau in 1849. The father of Charles-Louis Havas (1783-1858) traded in land and cotton futures during the French Revolution. The younger Havas was a munitions contractor at the port city of Nantes for the United Merchants, led by Gabriel-Julien Ouvrard, a French financier and one of the founders of United Merchants along with banker Médard Desprez, Regent of the Bank of France. In 1807, Havas began re-exporting "colonial commodities" such as sugar, coffee, or cotton to France. Using credit, Havas acquired 3,000 tons of Brazilian cotton, enough to supply a third of the needs of France for a year. He out-maneuvered Napoleon's embargo on British goods and made a fortune. Following Britain's victory over Portugal, Havas returned to France and opened an investment bank. He lent money to governments and assumed government debts. However, by 1815, he had lost everything. Havas was skilled in rhetoric and languages and in August 1832, he started a translation and messenger business. By 1835, he restructured his operation and called it the Agence Havas as "the first information bureau for the press."<sup>[407]</sup>

Dr. Bernhard Wolff (1811-79), who supported the revolutionary activities in Europe, worked as a translator for the Agence Havas in early 1848. Wolff returned to Berlin during the March Revolution and started a newspaper, *The National-Zeitung*. However, the Prussian government prohibited him from publishing numerous articles and his circulation decreased. He decided to add telegraphic news. On November 28, 1849, he published the stock and commodity prices from the previous day in France and Amsterdam. His distribution and commercial advertising increased because of this new feature. Wolff initiated an independent telegraph agency to provide specialized information to bankers, brokers and businessmen. Because he used the Prussian telegraph network, only certain people could afford his financial news service. In 1855, Wolff began providing political and general news to his newspaper subscribers.<sup>[408]</sup>

On January 17, 1870, Reuter signed an agreement with his European rivals to divvy up the world – Havas got South America, the three would share the European continent, and Reuter got the rest of the world.<sup>[409]</sup> They each got their own country and monopolized the rest of the world. By the late 1800s, the House of Rothschild controlled, not only *Reuters*, but also they had purchased the major news agencies – Havas of France and Wolff of Germany, just in time to propagandize World War I.<sup>[410]</sup> Monopolization and retaining perpetual control of the media was essential to launch a major world war. Wolff had its headquarters in Berlin and one of its chief officers was Max Warburg.<sup>[411]</sup>

Reuter's holdings, besides the core news and financial data services, include corporate info services, 100% ownership of ORT, which is the dominant provider of corporate information in France. In the healthcare sector, they have a major share of the Paris-based Agence Presse Medicale (APM) with clients ranging from hospitals and insurers to pharmaceutical companies. APM delivers newswire services for nine healthcare markets. Reuters Health Information Inc. (RHI) provides worldwide health and medical news services for professionals and consumers. Reuters has financial interests in Datamonitor, Europe's largest market analysis company. This company offers information to their subscribers regarding energy, healthcare, financial services, consumer goods, medical equipment, automotive and high technology sectors. Reuters has a majority stake in the US-based Yankee Group, a firm concerned with technology research, electronic commerce, wireless communications, computing and enterprise applications.

It also has a majority financial interest in the US-based TowerGroup, a strategies consultancy involved in information technology for the "global financial services sector, including retail and wholesale banking, securities and investments, insurance, electronic payments, the mortgage industry and the net."<sup>[412]</sup>

Perpetual, exclusive control of the press allows the elite to not only "break" a story but to retain management of the cover story. For instance, in the many false flags that have occurred – the media disseminates the information that they wish the population to believe. The original story remains, even if

there is a change in the political administration, a change in the editorial staff, the emergence of investigative reporters, deaths among the wealthy governing class, the corporate media, under elite generational control, maintains the original cover story despite whistleblowers, the rediscovery of old evidence or the recovery of new facts because of advanced technology. This is circumstantial evidence that a conspiracy exists – common sense, a study of history and alert observation attests that there is something drastically wrong with the direction of our culture and it is not spontaneous but deliberate.

### Newswire Services, “Poisoned at the Source”

The three wire services, Wolff, Havas and Reuters, understood that transmitting accurate political information could jeopardize their profits. They could acquire political “news” in numerous localities – in parliaments, courthouses and battlefields. They had to consider censorship issues, diplomacy and the new concern – national security, the newest justification for the lack of transparency in the media. This was especially the situation as Europe’s imperialists, specifically Britain, targeted resource rich countries around the world. The competitive political environment, with multiple parties and numerous issues was another challenging arena to cover. Profitability was always a consideration and they discovered that their greatest returns came from accommodating finance and business. If they elevated their reporting standards to suit the average readership of a member newspaper, then subscription rates might decrease, given the ownership of the majority of newspapers.<sup>[413]</sup>

Moses Yale Beach, a Connecticut native, whose mother was a relative of Elihu Yale, left Connecticut for New York in 1834 and by 1835, he owned the *New York Sun* newspaper, first published on September 3, 1833.<sup>[414]</sup> Truth was optional in many newspapers of the day and every paper should have carried the warning – Reader Beware! He later proposed a joint venture to other New York newspapers in which they collaborated to establish the Associated Press (AP). They issued the first dispatches about the Mexican-American War on May 29, 1846. On June 5, 1846, telegraphic communications between Washington and New York were established. The New York-Boston telegraph line went into operation on June 27, 1846.<sup>[415]</sup>

The presidential election of November 7, 1848 was the first election in which all of the states voted on the same day and the first election that utilized the telegraph to gather the returns. Newspapers abandoned their competitive differences and the Associated Press (AP) of New York added other papers. Owners incorporated AP in 1848 as the Associated Press of New York, which is located at 50 Rockefeller Plaza. By 1850, the group’s first paying customers received access to AP dispatches for a fee. By 1850, other newspapers throughout the country paid for AP dispatches.

During Lincoln’s War, politicians mobilized the Union’s press to sustain the army, and disseminate their ideology through a relatively well-established press. AP reporters covered every major event in the war. It was the first war in which individuals reported the news instantaneously. Reporters sent their stories to AP’s Washington, D.C. agent Lawrence Gobright, who telegraphed them to New York. In October 1861, workers completed the telegraph network in the west, which stretched from Omaha to Carson City, Nevada. On July 28, 1866, a telegraph cable linked Europe to North America and people were able to transmit eight words per minute. Despite objections from Western Union, AP leased its first telegraph wire, a 226-mile circuit between New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore and Washington.

Reuters and Havas collaborated to purchase Wolff’s wire service. In March 1865, Wolff allegedly approached the King of Prussia, Wilhelm I, in an attempt to prevent the takeover. Wolff reminded Wilhelm I of the “political importance” of maintaining the wire service. If Havas and Reuters accomplish their objective, foreigners would provide Prussia with its political information. Wilhelm I appealed to some bankers in Berlin.<sup>[416]</sup> Gerson von Bleichröder, the eldest son of Samuel Bleichröder and Wilhelm’s

personal banker, who founded the banking firm of S. Bleichröder in 1803 in Berlin, accommodated Wolff. On May 20, 1865, Bleichröder financially backed a new holding company for Wolff, the Continental Telegraphen-Compagnie. Bleichröder's bank was a branch office of the Rothschild bank. Bleichröder maintained lengthy close connections with the Rothschild family. In 1873, Auguste Havas, the son of founder Charles-Louis Havas, withdrew from the company and relinquished his control to Edouard Leon Lebey who turned to Frederic-Emile d'Erlanger for funds to buy out Havas. Raphael von Erlanger, an agent of the Rothschilds, was the father of Frederic-Emile d'Erlanger.<sup>[417]</sup> Erlanger promoted France's telegraphic links to Algeria, Egypt, India, Australia, China and Indochina, and the Americas. Erlanger paid 634,000 francs for Havas, enough money to purchase the entire control of the company. In July 1879, Erlanger incorporated the Agence Havas with 8.5 million francs, of which Erlanger received 637,000 francs.<sup>[418]</sup>

In late December 1867 or early January 1868, avowed socialist Charles A. Dana took control of Moses Yale Beach's *New York Sun*. Dana, who had supported Ulysses Grant in his military career, now promoted him for president in the November 1868 elections. The *New York Sun*'s stockholders included numerous influential, wealthy New York City Republicans.<sup>[419]</sup> Dana's newspaper, with a circulation of more than 50,000,<sup>[420]</sup> began a lengthy promotion of socialist authors like Laurence Grönlund, who wrote several books including *Cooperative Commonwealth* (1884) *Our Destiny, The Influence of Socialism on Morals and Religion* (1891), *The New Economy* (1898), *Socializing a State* (1898), and numerous pamphlets. He lectured all over the country and was an executive of the Socialist Labor Party (1874-1884).

AP did not have any serious competition until 1882, when a group led by William M. Laffan, of the *New York Sun*, founded the United Press (UP).<sup>[421]</sup> Laffan, subsidized by J. P. Morgan, a Rothschild agent, founded the *Evening Sun* in 1887. In 1897, Laffan took over the morning *New York Sun* from Paul Dana, purchasing full ownership in 1902 with Morgan money. Paul Dana controlled the *New York Sun* after his father, Charles A. Dana, died. Laffan had been associated with Charles A. Dana since 1877.<sup>[422]</sup>

In 1891, Victor Lawson of the *Chicago Daily News* found that top executives of the AP and the UP decided that UP could have free access to AP News. This information outraged the members of AP's Western division who then severed their ties to the association. On December 15, 1892, Melville Stone led the way in the establishment and incorporation of the Associated Press of Illinois and Stone became general manager. The New York AP rapidly collapsed and its members joined their previous competitor. Thereafter, in behalf of the newly reorganized AP, Stone acquired exclusive agreements with the big three European agencies, Reuters in England, Havas in France, and Wolff in Germany.<sup>[423]</sup>

Stone believed that the people were somewhat naïve as they based all of their information, and "the very conduct of their daily activities" on what the newspapers reported as "the news of the world." Just three men controlled these newspapers, which he thought was "quite as menacing as that of the governmental autocrats" of the previous ages. Under those circumstances, he said, "there could be no really free press." For a press to be free, it must gather news for itself and not depend on a "national cooperative news-gathering organization, owned by the newspapers and by them alone, selling no news, making no profits, paying no dividend, simply the agent and servant of the newspapers, was the thing."<sup>[424]</sup>

Stone reorganized the newspaper cooperative, just one of the four "international" wire services in the 1800s. The Associated Press' three European counterparts were nonprofit cooperatives. Reuter's Telegram Company in England, Havas in France, and Wolff's Telegraphic Bureau in Germany were limited-liability companies that a few shareholders controlled. Given that the genesis source of the majority of news, the AP and the European agencies, they could easily serve special interests. In July 1913, *The Masses*, an American socialist monthly magazine published a cartoon and editorial in which it claimed that news was "poisoned at the source." Close connections between big business and the wire

services were a fact and not a theory, as financiers actually purchased the three European services in 1873. Additionally, big business owned several of the newspapers that enjoyed membership in the Associated Press. They also subsidized the newspapers with their advertising dollars, a big factor in today's news and media industry. Newspapers, then and now, plus contemporary television broadcasts, may suppress or augment stories to promote amoral government policies or endorse questionable business ventures, detrimental to the public.<sup>[425]</sup>

In 1910, Paul Julius Reuter went into banking, the Reuter's Bank, Ltd., and not without experience – remember, he was an apprentice in his uncle's bank in Göttingen prior to the time he changed his name from Israel Beer Josephat. His wire service launched Reuter's Bank, Ltd. and owned the total shares, amounting to £510,000, which gave them complete control over the bank. The bank's board was composed of people associated with the wire service. Arnold J. Hadjuska, a Hungarian, managed the bank and opened a branch in Australia.<sup>[426]</sup>

By 1914, AP had about 100 member newspapers. Until 1915, AP prohibited their members from buying news from other services. By then, there were two viable competitors from whom AP members could get additional news, the United Press Association, formed in 1907, and the *International News Service*, founded by Hearst in 1909. Laffan's agency was out of the picture by 1916.

Currently, AP International is one of the world's largest newsgathering organizations, with about 243 news bureaus in 121 countries and thousands of members including foreign news outlets in five languages. In addition to traditional news services, it operates international television news service APTN (AP Television News), photo archives, and interactive news service (AP Digital). AP owns at least 1,500 U.S. daily newspaper members and 5,700 broadcast stations in the U.S. alone. In addition, there were 8,500 subscribers in foreign countries. In the summer of 2004, AP moved to Manhattan's West Side, redesigned its web site, and launched the online AP Financial News service. AP counted the votes on election night and the National Election Pool conducted exit polls.

### *The New York Times* – a Standard for the Print Media

Henry Jarvis Raymond and George Jones co-founded *The New York Times* in 1851. Raymond and Jones had both previously worked for socialist Horace Greeley. When Raymond died in 1869, Charles Miller, the editor-in-chief ultimately gained control of the paper in the 1890s.<sup>[427]</sup>

Adolph Simon Ochs (1858-1935) was the son of Julius Ochs (1826-1888), who had emigrated from Fürth, Bavaria, Germany in 1848, along with thousands of other revolution refugees, and joined his siblings in Louisville, Kentucky. After participating in the Mexican War, he engaged in business in Natchez, Mississippi, and Cincinnati.<sup>[428]</sup> Julius Ochs, an ardent abolitionist, spoke French, English and Italian. He had a number of different occupations. He owned a chain of stores in the South. He had helped manage a cotton factory in Louisiana. He also led a Masonic lodge, all before 1861.<sup>[429]</sup> When war broke out, Julius became a Union officer. Government officials had forced Adolph's mother Bertha Levy to leave Germany after her participation in the student revolution of 1848. Her family settled in the South. After Lincoln's War, her family settled in Chattanooga.<sup>[430]</sup>

Toward the end of Lincoln's War, the Ochs had settled in Knoxville where Julius acted as the rabbi of the Knoxville Benevolent Society Congregation. By spring of 1865, he was in business but lost his fortune when Lee surrendered and prices collapsed.<sup>[431]</sup> Adolph worked in the *Knoxville Chronicle*.<sup>[432]</sup> Adolph soon moved to Chattanooga and got a job as a newspaper carrier at *The Chattanooga Times*. He owned the paper by the time he was nineteen. In 1880, Adolph Ochs moved his parents to Chattanooga where his father, Julius Ochs became the first lay Rabbi in that city.<sup>[433]</sup> Within three years, he made it the most prominent newspaper in the area. In 1883, Adolph married Effie Miriam Wise, the daughter of Rabbi

Isaac Mayer Wise who immigrated to the United States in 1846. Wise founded Reform Judaism and was rabbi of the Lodge Street Synagogue of Cincinnati, Ohio and founder of Hebrew Union College, which opened on October 3, 1875. In 1896, the Ochs moved to New York.<sup>[434]</sup>

In August 1896, Adolph Ochs took over *The New York Times* as he had gained sufficient experience through editing *The Chattanooga Times*. Ochs became publisher and general manager with the financial assistance of J. P. Morgan and other investors. Although he was just a stockholder, Morgan interests would control much of the content by 1915. On August 18, 1896, Ochs issued a statement promising to provide all the news, to consider all issues of public interest and to report the news without bias.<sup>[435]</sup>

Adolph Simon Ochs' only child, Iphigenia Bertha Ochs married Arthur Hays Sulzberger on November 17, 1917.<sup>[436]</sup> Sulzberger later became publisher of *The New York Times*. Adolph and his father founded the Baroness Erlanger Hospital in Chattanooga, Tennessee, which they named for John Slidell's daughter, Marguerite Mathilde Slidell (1842-1927) who had married Frederic Emile Erlanger, a Frankfurt-born German banker who later became a baron and one of the leading bankers of Paris. Frederic Emile's father, Raphael von Erlanger, had been an agent for the Rothschilds but left their employ to found his own banking house in Frankfurt. Thereafter, he allied with various Rothschild rivals, which incurred the Rothschild wrath.<sup>[437]</sup> The Baron d'Erlanger invested in railroads and mines in Africa, North America, South America, and Europe. He also backed bonds for the Russian and Tunisian governments and invested in Southern cotton during the war. He collaborated with Paul Julius Reuter, the founder of Reuter's news agency, and funded the construction of a French transatlantic telephone cable in 1869. His wife, Mathilde, made the historic first call.

In March 1915, J. P. Morgan and his industrial cronies employed twelve influential reporters to select the country's most prominent newspapers. The industrialists wanted to "purchase" the editors and policy makers of the top papers. The group chose 179 newspapers and then through a process of elimination selected twenty-five of the most influential newspapers necessary to control the daily press of the whole country. The Morgan agents sent emissaries to purchase, through a monthly stipend, the cooperation of the twenty-five papers. They positioned compliant editors who would properly supervise the editorial content of each paper. These editors would pay particular attention to preparedness, militarism, financial policies, and issues of a national and international nature. The editors were also to suppress news that opposed the interests of those that the newspapers were indebted to – the industrialists who hired their editorial services.<sup>[438]</sup>

Bernard Baruch, American financier, stock market speculator, diplomat, and presidential adviser, financially backed numerous newspapers and columnists who would prove to be very prominent and instrumental in promoting just the right kind of newspaper articles. Arthur Krock, a columnist for the *Louisville Courier-Journal*, under Baruch's influence, attended the Paris Peace Conference with Baruch and Herbert Hoover in 1919. Baruch convinced Adolph Ochs, publisher of the *New York Times* to hire Krock who then reorganized the *New York Times* Washington bureau in 1932.

In 1926, Baruch had invested \$50,000 to assist David Lawrence to found the *United States Daily*, which became *United States News* and after World War II *USA News and World Report*. Baruch also financed Maxwell Lincoln Schuster and Dick Simon to form Simon and Schuster. Baruch also made investments in *Vogue*, *Vanity Fair*, *Raleigh News and Observer*, *Our World Magazine* and others.<sup>[439]</sup>

Simon & Schuster grew to include seven divisions, which included the Adult Publishing Group, Children's Publishing, Audio, Online, United Kingdom, Canada and Australia. Their imprints and brand names include: not only Simon & Schuster but Scribner, Pocket Books, Downtown Press, The Free Press, Atria, Fireside, Touchstone, Washington Square Press, Atheneum, Margaret K. McElderry, Aladdin Paperbacks, Little Simon, Simon Spotlight, Simon Spotlight Entertainment, Star Trek, MTV Books and

## Instigators from Abroad

Dozens of enlightened philosophical “gentlemen” fled to the U.S. from awkward situations in Europe. During the Constitutional Convention, May 25 to September 17, 1787, in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, Gouverneur Morris, of Pennsylvania, a bit exasperated, said that he wanted none of “those philosophical gentlemen, those citizens of the world as they call themselves, in our public councils” which they had evidently attempted to attend. However, many residents soon joined those who had arrived earlier, like Albert Gallatin (1761-1849), an alleged member of the Illuminati from Geneva, who managed to gain a leading position in the House minority in 1798.<sup>[441]</sup> Jefferson appointed him as Treasury Secretary (1801-1814) where Gallatin retained all of Hamilton’s financial policies.

In Berlin, in 1778 or 1779, there had been a secret group calling themselves the illuminé d’ Avignon that, embraced Swedenborgianism and other esoteric doctrines. Its key members included Joseph Pernety and Thaddeus Leszcsy Grabianka, an affiliate of the revolutionary Freemasons. However, the group, according to author Robert Rix, was not Masonic Lodge or a Swedenborgian Society. This group met its demise in 1793. The most notable feature about this group is their objective to induce European governments to change through a revolutionary process. However, early Swedenborgianism was a breeding ground of Masonic radicalism, especially after the French Revolution.<sup>[442]</sup>

In London, by October 1788, the Swedenborgians allied closely with international Masonry. Rumors of a full-fledged European revolution, similar to the French Revolution, escalated, especially after the publication of Abbé Augustin Barruel’s exposé, *Memoirs Illustrating the History of Jacobinism* (1797-1798). He was an émigré French Jesuit hiding out in London after the revolution. He viewed Swedenborgianism as “the heretical glue that bound together a variety of antisocial revolutionary societies.” According to him, Swedenborg’s visions were intended to eradicate Christianity from the minds of the duped and a plea for the revolutionary overthrow of present churches and government.” He claimed that a spiritual regeneration was necessary but it was merely a camouflage.<sup>[443]</sup>

Victor du Pont (1767-1827), a French consul, hastily left the U.S. in 1798 because President John Adams rejected his diplomatic position. However, he returned to the U.S. with a group of delegates from the Institute of France, under Du Pont de Nemours. Victor du Pont was the brother of Eleuthère Irénée du Pont, the founder of the E.I. DuPont de Nemours Company. Adams said, “We have too many French philosophers already, and I really begin to think, or rather to suspect, that learned academies ... have disorganized the world, and are incompatible with social order.”<sup>[444]</sup> Between 1793 and 1798, as many as twenty-five thousand Jacobins found refuge in the U.S. according to the French consular estimates. Freemasons from Ireland also flocked to the U.S. at the same time. Some Americans perceived this massive immigration as dangerous to the U.S., which generated the Naturalization Act of 1798 that extended the required period of residence for citizenship. The Alien Act allowed the President the power to expel foreigners.<sup>[445]</sup> In 1796, the Federalists had consolidated their power in both houses. John Taylor, of Caroline suggested secession. Jefferson argued that Northeastern domination and the afflictions would be short-lived and rectified at the ballot box. In the summer of 1796, the Federalist Congress passed numerous acts designed to strengthen the federal government and in 1798 passed the Sedition Act to silence all dissent. President John Adams, a tool of the Federalist Party, signed the bills.<sup>[446]</sup>

Maximilien Robespierre (1758-1794) was a Freemason, a lawyer and a member of the Society of the Friends of the Constitution, also known as the secretive Jacobin Club. It was formed in 1786 with such early members as Honoré Gabriel Riqueti, Comte de Mirabeau (1749-1791), Abbé Sieyès (1748-1836), Antoine Barnave, Jérôme Pétion, the Abbé Grégoire, Charles Lameth, and Alexandre Lameth, all

allegedly part of the Illuminati.<sup>[447]</sup> Robespierre, a disciple of Weishaupt and Rousseau, reportedly belonged to one of the Illuminati lodges founded by Weishaupt. He embraced Weishaupt's objective of a widespread social revolution and considered anarchy as a means to restructure society according to a system known later as State Socialism.<sup>[448]</sup>

The Jacobin Club had thousands of chapters throughout France with at least 420,000 members. This secret society is notorious for implementing the Reign of Terror, characteristic of the Revolution, and the September Massacres (1792). Reverend Thomas Robert Malthus, in *An Essay of the Principle of Population* (1798), formalized the doctrine of "the inferiority of the white yeomanry" and initiated the worldwide de-population policies of the Illuminati. Charles Darwin was a distant cousin to Malthus. Both intellectually devalued human life.<sup>[449]</sup> One does not have to hold membership in a nefarious society to implement their collective plans or use their hand signals.

Malthus decided that the poor whites should practice "moral restraint" or self-extinction to halt the reproduction of their class and therefore, eradicate poverty. However, when the British created the poor law, offering assistance to those with dependents, they inadvertently removed the necessity to practice restraint. Malthus then offered "the perfect solution" for eliminating the "surplus" white population. An angry population could potentially rebel against Britain's ruling class and dethrone the privileged elite class. Therefore, said Malthus, for the "maximum good of society," we should simply starve those who are not gainfully employed. David Ricardo supported Malthus in his proposal; he said, "By engaging to feed all who may require food you in some measure create an unlimited demand for human beings...the population and the rates (taxes) would go on increasing in a regular progression until the rich were reduced to poverty..." The factory owners were willing to take the white "refuse," people who might otherwise starve.<sup>[450]</sup>

France's Reign of Terror eliminated enemies using Dr. Guillotine's contraption, which assured one of a relatively painless death. By mid-1794, almost five hundred thousand arrests had culminated with the execution of more than thirty-five thousand men and women.<sup>[451]</sup> Some figures are as high as 300,000. Robespierre, seeing so many unemployed with no available jobs, thought that depopulation was indispensable because calculations had indicated that the French population exceeded the available resources, which he said necessitated the sacrifice of commoners, accomplished by the revolution.<sup>[452]</sup> The depopulation advocate's ideological foundation is the Machiavellian/Weishauptian edict that "the ends justify the means."

The French Revolution (1787-1799) has been deceptively glorified, whitewashed and lauded a success by Communists, many establishment historians and naïve individuals. It exploited prevalent common injustices but had little to do with securing freedom from the oppression of King Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette. Members of the Illuminati orchestrated the revolt and allegedly paid approximately 1,000 Parisians to storm the Bastille, supposedly to release dozens of political prisoners. Actually, there were only seven prisoners housed there, none for political reasons. Authorities had imprisoned the Marquis de Sade (1740-1814), the early moral compass of the Illuminati in the Bastille but fortunately, for him, they transferred him to another prison on July 2, 1789. The storming of the prison occurred on July 14, 1789. The late Alfred Charles Kinsey (1894-1956) functioned as the moral equivalent for this generation of perversion and unrestricted immorality.

The Revolution's motto, taken from Freemasonry, was Egalité, Fraternité, Liberté, which translated into English, means Equality, Fraternity and Liberty. Dr. Adrian H. Krieg states that Egalité is the root word for egalitarian, a word that means the leveling of values. The infamous guillotine facilitated the redistribution of wealth from those whose severed heads lay in baskets to the acquiescent mob.<sup>[453]</sup> The original motto of the French Republic was Liberty, Equality, Fraternity or Death. Members later dropped

the death part, associated with the bloody Reign of Terror.

Like Lincoln's War, establishment historians glorified and whitewashed the French Revolution and naïve individuals have lauded it as a success. It exploited common injustices but had little to do with securing freedom from the oppression of King Louis and Marie Antoinette. It was also relatively easy to exploit the numerous injustices that existed in the southern states. A revolution rarely addresses the justifications given for its execution. The goal appears to be revolution itself.

As the French Revolution was ending, three perceptive individuals, in France, England and U.S., perceived that the Illuminati had provoked and directed the revolution, as divulged in their papers in 1787, through their alliance with Freemasonry, which used blood oaths to maintain secrecy. The organization, still extant despite rumors to the contrary, intended to bring about world revolution through violence. In addition to the Abbé Barruel, who witnessed the French Revolution and wrote about it, Professor John Robison, a Scottish scientist, wrote *Proofs of a Conspiracy*. Reverend Jedediah Morse, a New England clergyman and geographer, beginning on May 9, 1798, delivered three sermons, all published, in support of Barruel and Robison's work. William Cobbett, who relocated from Britain to Philadelphia by 1793, in his *Porcupine's Gazette*, publicized all of their efforts and suffered persecution by the same evil forces.<sup>[454]</sup>

Thomas Cooper, of Manchester, England, and Cooper's friend, Dr. Joseph Priestley (1733-1804) also endorsed Maximilien Robespierre. Priestley was a Unitarian minister who tried to merge Enlightenment rationalism with Christian theism. His friend, Theophilus Lindsey, had founded Unitarianism in England. His parents raised Priestley as a devout Calvinist but he later maintained that humans had no free will. He had a worldwide reputation due to his research into the physical sciences, especially electricity, an interest he shared with his friend, Benjamin Franklin. In 1766, members nominated and awarded Priestly a fellowship in the Masonic-based Royal Society.<sup>[455]</sup>

Thomas Walker played a prominent role in Manchester's revolutionary abolition movement by organizing and heading the Manchester abolition group, which collected 10,639 signatures in 1788 and 20,000 in 1792, both destined for Parliament. Promises of emancipation, women's liberation, worker's rights, constitutional rights are all hooks to engage the common man or woman in chaotic revolutionary actions. Manchester remained the center of the abolition movement up to the passing of the Abolition Act on March 25, 1807.

Edmund Burke (1729-1797), author of *Reflections on the Revolution in France*, gave a speech in the House of Commons on April 30, 1792 in which he revealed that Walker sent two traitorous English agents, Cooper and James Watt, to France to enter into a federation with the "iniquitous" Club of Jacobins. Burke then read the address they had given in France. He also mentioned Thomas Walker of Manchester who "avowed similar principles."<sup>[456]</sup> Cooper immediately responded by writing *A Reply to Mr. Burke's Invective Against Mr. Cooper, and Mr. Watt, in the House of Commons, on the 30th of April, 1792*. Authorities tried Walker for conspiracy. There are records in the Library of Congress regarding a conspiracy "to overthrow the constitution and government, and to aid and assist the French, (being the King's enemies) in case they should invade this kingdom." These same records mention a case against Cooper.<sup>[457]</sup>

Priestley left England and joined Cooper in Pennsylvania where he helped found the First Unitarian Church of Philadelphia and aided in the establishment of the Northumberland Academy. His objective was to combine the most advanced Enlightenment ideas with unorthodox Christianity and basic science. Priestley joined the American Philosophical Association and by the time he died, he had attained membership in every important scientific society in the world. The Federalists welcomed Priestley whereas Cooper, a British Jacobin adopted an anti-Federalist stance. He became the editor of the

*Northumberland Gazette*, in which he criticized President Adams's handling of public finances as Adams had borrowed high-interest money to maintain a standing army and Adams interfered with the independence of the judiciary.<sup>[458]</sup>

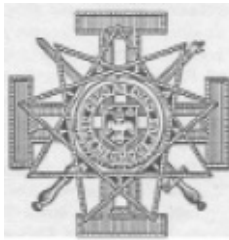
In 1918, to fulfill his Doctor of Philosophy requirement from the faculty of Political Science of Columbia University, Vernon Stauffer, Professor of New Testament and Church History wrote a book entitled *New England and the Bavarian Illuminati* in which he discredits Robison and Barruel. In his introduction he wrote, "Morse's warning by no means fell upon deaf ears...Soon ministers were preaching, newspaper editors and contributors writing...and voicing their serious concern over the secret presence in America of those conspirators whose greatest single achievement, a multitude had come to believe, was the enormities of the French Revolution. It is true that before two years had passed men generally began to admit the baseless nature of the alarm that Morse had sounded...it signified nothing more than the absurd fears of a New England clergyman who, under the strain of deep political and religious concern, and after a hasty reading of the latest volume of religious and political horrors that had just arrived from Europe, rushed into his pulpit and gave utterance to preposterous statements which his imagination for the moment led him to believe were justified."<sup>[459]</sup> George Washington wrote a letter to Morse, to state that he was hopeful that Morse would continue his efforts to warn the citizens and that his warnings would experience "a more general circulation... for it contains important information, as little known, *out of a small circle*, as the dissemination of it would be useful, if spread through the community."<sup>[460]</sup>

# Elitists and Secret Societies

## Illuminati, Promises of Universal Emancipation

### The Foundation of the Illuminati

The elite in every country, through rite-of-passage privilege, deem it their responsibility to dominate the rest of society. Johann Adam Weishaupt, a former student at a Jesuit school, was a lay professor of Canon Law at Ingolstadt University, a position usually held by a Jesuit. On May 1, 1776, he formally organized the Ancient Illuminated Seers of Bavaria, which people know as the Order of the Illuminati in Bavaria, Germany.<sup>[461]</sup> Allegedly, one of the co-founders was Prince Wilhelm of Hesse-Kassel who had an economic association with Mayer Amschel Rothschild.<sup>[462]</sup> Some people assert that Weishaupt and Rothschild organized the Illuminati. However, the Rothschild's main connection to the Illuminati seems to be through the House of Hesse.<sup>[463]</sup> The Illuminati deceptively uses the phrase "peace on earth," but actually plans the destruction of all existing governments and religions through a process of "dividing the masses into opposing camps in ever increasing numbers on political, social, economic, and other issues." People would "fight and weaken themselves and gradually destroy national governments and religious institutions."<sup>[464]</sup> Ironically, the motto of the Strategic Air Command, in charge of slaughtering thousands with their bombs during World War II, is *Peace is our Profession*. The pilot's wings and the SAC appear emblematic to the Illuminati graphics.



Weishaupt became a Freemason in 1777 and towards the end of 1778. Thereafter, he conceived the idea of a merger between the Illuminati and Freemasonry, a well-established, secretive fellowship that shared some similarities. Herr Xavier von Zwack, a lawyer, who became a Freemason on November 27, 1778, discussed the merger idea with the Abbé Marotti, another Mason, who understood the tenets of Illuminism. Baron Adolph Knigge (1752-1796) arrived in Frankfurt in July 1780, met Weishaupt (code name Spartacus) and joined the Order of the Illuminati, adopting the name of Philo. Knigge, an influential writer had studied law from 1769 to 1772 at the University of Göttingen, which apparently became a favorite recruiting institution for Illuminati initiates. Numerous individuals from elite families in the United States studied at the University of Göttingen.

They accomplished the merging of Freemasonry and the Illuminati at the Congress of Wilhelmsbad, a luxurious retreat and spa created in 1777 by Prince Wilhelm. The conference began on July 16, 1782 with representatives from numerous secret societies. All together, the Martinists (founded by Martines de Pasqually who relocated to Santo Domingo), and the Freemasons combined with the Illuminati now numbered about three million members worldwide.<sup>[465]</sup> The Illuminati totaled, by the 1780s, only between 2,000 and 3,000 people.<sup>[466]</sup> Prince Wilhelm's brother, Prince Karl of Hesse-Kassel was the Governor of Schleswig-Holstein. He was allegedly an ardent Freemason and a member of the Illuminati.

The composition of the majority of Freemasons are regular members of society including hard working judges, doctors, bankers, lawyers and businessmen attempting to enhance their communities. Most Freemasons never exceed beyond the 3rd degree, a rite of passage where they swear a secret blood oath. Freemasonry, a highly secretive organization, already established, made a perfect Illuminati front. Those

who work their way up to the 33rd Degree may eventually participate in the “Killing of the King” ritual. The leaders in the upper echelon use lower level members to implement compartmentalized segments of various dark operations without ever recognizing the final objective or realize they had contributed to what frequently results in a disastrous occurrence.<sup>[467]</sup>

In 1794, five years after the French Revolution, the Duke of Brunswick, Karl Wilhelm Ferdinand, Grand Master of German Freemasonry, also Illuminati, made the following admission, “...We see our edifice (Freemasonry) crumbling and covering the ground with ruins; we see *destruction* that our hands no longer arrest ... *A great sect* arose, which taking for its motto the good and the happiness of man, worked in the darkness of the conspiracy to make the happiness of humanity a prey for itself. This sect is known to everyone; its brothers are known no less than its name. It is they who have undermined the foundations of the Order to the point of complete overthrow; it is by them that all humanity has been poisoned and led astray for several generations ... They began by casting odium on religion ... the plan they had formed for breaking all social ties and *destroying all order* was revealed in all their speeches and acts ... they recruited apprentices of every rank and in every position; *they deluded the most perspicacious men by falsely alleging different intentions* ... Their masters had nothing less in view than the thrones of the earth, and the government of the nations was to be directed by their nocturnal clubs. This is what has been done *and is still being done*. But we notice that princes and people are unaware how and by what means this is being accomplished. That is why we say to them in all frankness: the misuse of our Order ... has produced all the political and moral troubles with which the world is filled today. You who have been initiated, you must join yourselves with us in raising your voices, so as to teach peoples and princes that *the sectarians, the apostates of our Order, have alone been and will be the authors of present and future revolutions* ... So as to cut out to the roots the abuse and error, we must from this moment dissolve the whole Order...”<sup>[468]</sup>

Individuals structured the Illuminati, established to counter the clergy’s positive influence, after the Masonic model. The participants in the contest between good and evil adopted some of the tenets of Manichean symbolism. It was/is a war between light and darkness, between the illumination of reason and the allegedly sordid dark ignorance of religious superstition. The Illuminati goal was the secularized, counterfeit perfection of humankind. Weishaupt, a former Jesuit, incorporated and perverted the confession ritual into the Illuminati initiation process, which became an effective blackmail tool to persuade neophytes to conform to fraternity guidelines. This confession ritual is evident in the Skull and Bones coffin ceremony where the initiate bares his deepest, darkest secrets, often relating to sexual improprieties or illegal behaviors.

To emulate Christianity, individuals used reason, postured as revelation. In the era of the Enlightenment (1650-1850), individuals replaced and honored the creation, such as the earth, and dismissed the Creator. Denis Diderot, the French philosopher, imitated the Bible, the holy book of Christian clarification in his 36-volume *Encyclopédie*, the inspiration for the Enlightenment. His work included imprints of Voltaire (François-Marie Arouet), Montesquieu (Charles-Louis de Secondat, baron de La Brède et de Montesquieu), Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Georges-Louis Leclerc, Comte de Buffon and Anne Robert Jacques Turgot, all influential writers of the period.

The title page of the first edition had a figurative drawing of Lucifer, symbol of light and rebellion, positioned next to the Masonic symbols of the square and the compass. Illuminati members studied the certain philosophers to counter the Jesuits and strengthen their own philosophy. The Illuminati spread to Poland, Holland, England and France, functioning within Masonic Lodges. Johann Gottfried von Herder, the German philosopher, atheist and composer was an Illuminist.<sup>[469]</sup> Johann Wolfgang Goethe, also a philosopher, writer and privy councilor was an Illuminist.<sup>[470]</sup> He is best known as the creator of *Faust*. It

is perhaps, as many have speculated, an Illuminist allegory.

Jean-Jacques Rousseau, a prominent figure of the French Enlightenment, wrote *The Social Contract or Principles of Political Right* in 1762.<sup>[471]</sup> He promoted the concept that people relinquish sovereignty to a government or other power in order to obtain or maintain social order through the rule of law. That social order should also be applicable to one's choices and their interactions with others. While his text is commendable regarding civil freedom and individual equality, he impregnated his young laundress at least five times. After the birth of his children, he forced the girl to place the newborn at the doorstep of the Hôpital des Enfants-Trouvés, a notorious orphanage that he had written about, stating that two-thirds of the babies placed there die within a year. Further, the children who survive do not make it past the age of seven. His lofty ideals did not prohibit him from practicing repeated, certain infanticide against his own children.<sup>[472]</sup>

In addition to Freemasonry, Illuminati members have infiltrated various well-established organizations. The top echelon of these associations supervise willing minions who seek the power and glory of the world while the compartmentalized bottom rung subordinates accept deceitful dogma, receive praise and gratuities, yet fail to recognize their contribution to the growing evils, corruption and bloodshed despite the obvious evidence. They direct the day-to-day functions of major commercial banks, corporations, churches, foundations, educational institutions, occupational organizations, criminal syndicates and governments. Their secretive symbols, signs, handshakes are subtle and unacknowledged by the majority. Their buildings, hidden in plain sight, hold a decidedly different association for the commoners as opposed to their significance to the elite, the self-styled rulers of humanity who have commissioned the architectural designs and directed the construction of most of the commercial and cultural edifices pervasive in our societies, such as banks, libraries, government buildings.

### Illuminati, Promises of Universal Emancipation

Emancipation, according to several dictionary definitions, is the act of freeing someone from the control of another. The word is especially applicable to a parent relinquishing their authority and control over a minor child. It is the freeing, liberation, release, or the act of liberating someone or something from bondage, oppression, or restraint. Weishaupt, in his *Discourse to the Illuminati Dirigentes* wrote, "We must therefore strengthen our band, and establish a legion, which shall restore the rights of man, original liberty and independence."<sup>[473]</sup>

The Illuminati dogma attracted women through its enticement of women's rights or emancipation.<sup>[474]</sup> They divided female adepts into two classes, the first were composed of "virtuous women" to provide "respectability" for the Order, and the second class was comprised of "light women," to "satisfy those brothers who have a penchant for pleasure."<sup>[475]</sup> The promise of emancipation would repeatedly prove to be an incredibly strong motivation for many of the victimized and enslaved peoples of the world. The elites exploited the idea of emancipation in Lincoln's War and in every war following that bloody battle. They also exploited the idea of emancipation in America's CIA-backed feminist movement directed by Gloria Steinem and Betty Friedan who both attended Smith College and helped to found the National Organization for Women in 1966. The elites employ emancipation on an agenda-specific basis without regard to actual humanitarian need.

Soon, Illuminism had spread to Denmark and Portugal. Illuminized Britons with like-minded Americans established New York's Columbian Lodge in 1785. Aleksandra Nikolayevich Radishchev, a Russian author and social critic, who studied at the University of Leipzig, joined the order, and took the doctrines back to St. Petersburg. Radishchev utilized the Enlightenment philosophies in his writings. In 1782, poet Cláudio Manuel da Costa visited Lisbon, joined the society, took the doctrines home to Brazil, and

founded a chapter with Domingos Vidal Barbosa and José Álvares Maciel.

Barbosa was a devotee of Abbé Guillaume Thomas François Raynal, a former Jesuit and ardent abolitionist, who wrote the multi-volume history of British colonialism and antislavery *Philosophical and Political History of the Settlements and Trade of the Europeans in the East and West Indies*, a veritable textbook for those who were inspired by America's example. He collaborated with Denis Diderot, the author of *Encyclopédie*. In 1785, José Bonifácio de Andrada e Silva wrote poems heavy with the writings of John Locke, an English philosopher and physician who is widely regarded as the Father of Liberalism. He also emulated François-Marie Arouet de Voltaire, Alexander Pope, Virgil (Publius Vergilius Maro), the Roman poet and Luís Vaz de Camões, Portugal's greatest poet. José Álvares Maciel traveled to England and spent time studying manufacturing techniques and discussing Brazilian independence with supportive English merchants.<sup>[476]</sup>

The elites chose Minas Gerais, one of the twenty-six states in Brazil, as the location to begin the emancipation known as the Inconfidência Mineira. It was the site of the University of Coimbra. Universities provide an opportunistic environment to mold minds and enlist willing participants in various operations associated with Illuminati objectives. The Brazilian elite had sent their sons to Minas Gerais for forty years.<sup>[477]</sup> One of the main internal causes for dissatisfaction was the decline of gold mining in Minas Gerais. The area's residents could not fulfill their tax obligations to the crown. When they could not satisfy the Royal's demand for gold, they were plagued with an additional tax on gold, called derrama. The Inconfidência Mineira was not successful. Officials condemned José Álvares Maciel and eight others to the gallows. They banished seven other participants to Africa and acquitted others.

## Illuminati Objectives

In 1905, the Socialist movement accelerated in the U.S. with the establishment of the Intercollegiate Socialist Society. The society organized chapters in several universities and colleges throughout the country in order to develop future leaders. Robert Morss Lovett, a writer, editor, political activist, and professor at the University of Chicago was the first president of the Intercollegiate Socialist Society. Lovett, not to be confused with Robert A. Lovett, the Brown Brothers partner, was successful in creating fifty-six Communist-front affiliations. The Intercollegiate Socialist Society later changed its name to The League for Industrial Democracy.<sup>[478]</sup>

The goals of Communism, as defined in *The Communist Manifesto*, are almost identical to the goals of the Illuminati. The International bankers financed Communism as an instrument for power, a front for the super-rich. The goal of Communism is not equal distribution of wealth but confiscation and control of all resources and assets by a select minority. The elite did not supervise Communism or enact Communist policies from Moscow, Beijing or elsewhere, but from the banker's conference tables in New York, Paris and London.

Douglas Reed wrote, "The line from Illuminism in 1789 to Communism today is but a line of inheritance; the *same* organization pursues the same aim with the same methods and even with the same words."<sup>[479]</sup> One can easily access the notes the Dr. Lawrence Dunegan after he had attended a Pittsburgh Pediatric Society lecture on March 20, 1969 where he listened to Dr. Richard Day, an admitted "insider" in the "Order." Day referred to the "new world system," also called the "New Order of Barbarians" in which he defined the changes, according to an actual timetable, that would be accomplished by the year 2000. The facilitators of the new system devised the procedures and positioned appropriate willing people to implement this nefarious system long in advance.<sup>[480]</sup>

According to Dr. Day, he was relatively free to speak about what people had previously strictly withheld because "everything is in place and nobody can stop us now." However, to prevent wide distribution, he

prohibited anyone from recording the session or taking notes. He suggested that there could be negative repercussions against him if his remarks became widely publicized. In 1988, after years of compiling what he remembered, Dr. Dunegan recorded his recollections of the 1969 lecture on two tapes. Dr. Day said, “Everything has two purposes. One is the ostensible purpose which will make it acceptable to people and second is the real purpose which would further the goals of establishing the new system.”<sup>[481]</sup>

Dr. Day disclosed some of the following tactics that insiders had developed to alter culture and decrease population, with a focus on the family, the basic unit of society.

1. Number of people living at any one time on the planet must be limited.
2. People would not be “allowed” to have babies out of want or carelessness.
3. People would separate sex from reproduction yet encourage sexual activity. Experts would strongly recommend contraception, which they would make universally available and display it prominently in America’s drug stores.
4. They would introduce sex education in the schools; even in elementary school, all designed to entice children early. Pregnancy among teens would increase.
5. “Abortion will no longer be a crime.” The taxpayers would pay for those who are unable to pay for it themselves. People would view abortion as normal.
6. More people would adopt a homosexual lifestyle.
7. More people would obtain divorces. Families would diminish in importance.
8. Medical experts would introduce euthanasia for those who had outlived their usefulness.
9. The insurance companies and private industry would connect medical care to employment. Health care costs would increase and officials would control medicine and medical care. Free hospital care would gradually cease.
10. The government and corporations would require photo identification for their employees and those entering public buildings.
11. Doctors would become highly skilled specialized technicians.
12. Difficult to diagnose new diseases will appear and remain untreatable.
13. Dr. Day said, “We can cure almost every cancer right now. Information about this is on file in the Rockefeller Institute.” However, if people stop dying of cancer, we will become overpopulated. He also said assassins would be able to simulate a real heart attack.
14. Convenience or prepared foods will be hazardous.
15. People will promote a new worldwide religion. They will alter the bible.
16. Editors will subtly alter the literary classics.
17. Children will spend more time in school but it will be less productive.
18. The elite will limit publishing; books will disappear from the libraries.
19. They will alter the law, including the blue law regarding Sunday purchasing.
20. States will legalize and institutionalize gambling. They will control corporate competition, change anti-trust regulation, impose deregulation, which will allow monopoly capitalism and private public partnerships.
21. Alcohol and drug consumption will increase provoking more police control and incarceration,

possibly into privately owned jails. Taxpayers will pay the costs of incarceration. They will use crime to manage society.

22. The elite will impose travel restrictions and make it challenging to travel. People will need permission and justification to travel within the country. There will be more plane and auto accidents.

23. The government will impose a central monitoring system, perhaps through cable media within our homes.

24. They will allow the infrastructure to deteriorate which will create a depressed atmosphere.

25. They will curtail manufacturing ostensibly to give other countries a chance to catch up. Due to job loss, people will relocate; in some instances causing huge population shifts. Industrial sabotage may also contribute to accidents producing loss of income and relocation.

26. Entertainment will become more sexually explicit, graphic and violent in order to desensitize people. People will accept scenes of death more readily.

27. The elites, possibly through agribusiness, introduced by the Rockefeller Foundation, will centralize food production and distribution causing food shortages. Small farms will disappear.

28. Dr. Day said, "We can or soon will be able to control the weather."

29. Housing costs will be prohibitive.

30. The elite will control the economy through inflation. Money will become credit and its exchange will be electronic. Despite all appearances, a single banking system will control all financial activities.

31. The elite would use terrorism to control populations and impose draconian legislation.<sup>[482]</sup>

It is entirely possible to prove a conspiracy by circumstantial evidence. While conspirators may provide clues, they rarely record the exact details of their maneuverings or objectives. According to the results of one court case, the Nathan vs. Saint Paul Mutual Insurance Company, "It is only by assembling the results, with such evidence as may be of the progress thereto by the participants, that the victim can ever make a case of conspiracy. If in the end there is a completed structure of result, the frame of which has been furnished piecemeal by several individuals, the parts when brought together showing adaptation to each other and fitness for the end accomplished, it is at least reasonable to infer concert in both planning and fabrication."<sup>[483]</sup>

## **Society of Cincinnati, a More Perfect Union**



The Second Continental Congress met on May 10, 1775 in Philadelphia after the beginning of the Revolutionary War (April 19, 1775). This Congress established the Continental Army on June 14, 1775 to coordinate the war effort. Members of this Congress, during June and July of 1776, drafted a Declaration of Independence that the thirteen colonies ratified on July 4, 1776. The Congress appointed a committee to

draft the Articles of Confederation in June 1776, which officially established the union of states. The states completed the ratification process by March 1, 1781. This document formerly federated the sovereign and independent states, which were already cooperating and executing the war through the Continental Congress. It created a new federation, "The United States of America." The states, according to the Articles, retained sovereignty and controlled all governmental activities not exclusively relinquished to the central government.

On the date that the colonies ratified the Articles of Confederation, the Continental Congress became the Congress of the Confederation and could declare war, negotiate diplomatic agreements, and solve questions concerning the western territories. Article XIII stipulated "their provisions shall be inviolably observed by every state" and "the Union shall be perpetual." These articles united the citizens in their efforts to secure the "freedom, sovereignty, and independence of the United States." The Congress of the Confederation functioned from March 1, 1781, to March 4, 1789 when the United States Congress replaced it.

American soldiers soundly vanquished the British during the Battle of Yorktown (September 28 - October 19, 1781). America's early military aristocracy plotted a future conquest of America by creating a secret alliance of army officers whose membership was hereditary, from father to son, like the European nobility. This alliance, the Society of Cincinnati derived its name from Cincinnatus, the ancient Roman dictator. Their emblem was the fasces, the symbol of ancient Roman officialdom. They intended to control federal and state politics and overthrow the newly won First Republic, a result of the war, and establish an oligarchy headed by General George Washington. Alexander Hamilton, one of Washington's aides was a Society member.<sup>[484]</sup> Officers created the society during May 10-13, 1783 at Mount Gulian on the east bank of the Hudson River. After resigning as general, Washington became the society's first president with Major General Henry Knox, a Freemason, as secretary.<sup>[485]</sup>

According to the historian, Herbert Aptheker, this sinister force intended to replace the civilian-dominated Republican form of government with either a military dictatorship or an absolute monarchy. Whichever option they chose, Washington, a hugely popular war hero, was their choice as the supreme leader. His contemporaries compared him to Moses and even Christ, so great were his achievements as Commander-in-Chief over the British.<sup>[486]</sup>

Hamilton chaired the elite Society's first meeting. Members of the Society of Cincinnati, an elite fellowship, served as board members for the American Philosophical Society. Past members of the Philosophical Society include George Washington, John Adams, Owen Biddle, Thomas Jefferson, Alexander Hamilton, Thomas Paine, David Rittenhouse, Benjamin Rush, James Madison, Michael Hillegas, and John Marshall. International members include Alexander von Humboldt, the Marquis de Lafayette, Baron von Steuben, Tadeusz Kościuszko, and Yekaterina Romanovna Vorontsova-Dashkova. Later members include Charles Darwin, Robert Frost, Louis Pasteur, Elizabeth Cabot Agassiz, John James Audubon, Linus Pauling, Margaret Mead, Maria Mitchell, and Thomas Edison.

The American Philosophical Society laid the foundation for countless other societies, which have designed and shaped society's perceptions. Benjamin Franklin founded the Society in Philadelphia through a circular letter, dated May 13, 1743, entitled "A Proposal for Promoting Useful Knowledge among the British Plantations in America." The word "philosophical," at the time, meant the systematic study of every field of investigation and education. They focused on what constituted the customary college curricula of the times. The organization did not flourish until 1767. On January 2, 1769, the American Society Held at Philadelphia for Promoting Useful Knowledge merged with the American Philosophical Society and Benjamin Franklin became its first president.<sup>[487]</sup>

Members of the Philosophical Society had foreign associations. Franklin knew Freemasons in Britain,

France, the Netherlands and America. He also knew the members of the hedonistic Hellfire Club located in Britain.<sup>[488]</sup> Franklin and Voltaire were both members of France's most prestigious Masonic group, the Lodge of the Nine Sisters, which met at Saint-Sulpice.<sup>[489]</sup> Voltaire and Jean-Jacques Rousseau were leading proponents of this "natural" religion, Deism.<sup>[490]</sup> In 1789, there were over six hundred Masonic lodges just in Paris. Rousseau and Voltaire inspired Illuminism and the Masonic philosophies. The French Revolution transformed the country into death and massive destruction. Whatever ventures the elite Freemasons engaged in, from the slave trade to Asian opium smuggling, they prospered while the peons took all the risks and did all the dying. An "end justifies the means" mentality still pervades society today.<sup>[491]</sup>

The Abbé Corr  a da Serra arrived in America with letters of introduction to President James Madison and Thomas Jefferson and other leading members of the Philosophical Society from some of the leaders of the European Enlightenment including Andr   Thouin and Sir Joseph Banks, Pierre Samuel du Pont (1739-1817), Alexander von Humboldt and Joel Barlow, American Minister in Paris.<sup>[492]</sup> Pierre Samuel du Pont, a French nobleman, was the father of Eleuth  re Ir  n  e du Pont, the founder of E.I. du Pont de Nemours and Company in the United States. They founded their chemical company in July 1802 as a gunpowder mill. DuPont is currently the world's second largest chemical company behind BASF and fourth behind BASF, Dow Chemical and Ineos in revenue.

John Marshall, a Federalist, functioned as Chief Justice of the U.S. Supreme Court longer than anyone else in history did, for over three decades. He played a major role in the construction and development of America's legal system. In particular, he empowered the concept that federal courts have the authority to exercise judicial review, including the power to determine which laws violate the Constitution. The Marbury v. Madison (1803) case provided the foundation for the exercise of judicial review. This case was the first time that the Supreme Court proclaimed that something was "unconstitutional." Consequently, Marshall almost single-handedly reinforced the importance of the U.S. judiciary as an independent and formidable branch of the government. Additionally, the Marshall Court (1801-1835) made numerous critical decisions regarding federalism, which affected the balance of power between the states and the federal government. He continually confirmed the superiority of federal over state law. He advocated an enhanced interpretation of the enumerated powers of the Constitution. In this way, the elite facilitated the incremental change from a National Republican State to a socialistic democracy, then to a fully functioning corporate state with resource ownership and power in the hands of an elite minority.

The Federalists, ensconced in many elite organizations and government positions, were determined to alter the government's structure, an objective they often initiated through warfare, a time of chaos, tribulation and distracted citizenry. The Federalists claimed that the Articles of Confederation, although constructed by British agents, were inadequate in creating an effective government and clamored for a more powerful federation to replace the Congress of the Confederation. Their principle criticism was that its Congress did not have the power to levy taxes. Instead, it had to request money from the states. They wanted a government that could impose tariffs, dispense land grants, and be responsible for unpaid state war debts, the dangling carrot. The anti-federalists, who opposed a new constitution and a strong, centralized government, thought that limitations on government power were essential. The Federalists triumphed and replaced the Articles with the U.S. Constitution on June 21, 1788.

The Articles of Confederation did not contain provisions on governing a territory, especially the vast size of the Northwest Territory. Jefferson persuaded Virginia officials to relinquish its claims to the area and suggested that Congress divide the Northwest Territory into ten states that would be self-governing with a modicum of supervision from Congress. Jefferson's plan also called for the emancipation of all slaves by 1800. However, the Society of Cincinnati opposed the plan as its leader, George Washington, insisted that the land was still part of his personal estate. He did not favor democracy in the area. He maneuvered

Congress, through its many Cincinnati supporters, to get Jefferson appointed as Ambassador to France to get him and his democratic ideas out of the country. People soon forgot about Jefferson's suggestions for a democratic form of government for the Northwest Territory.<sup>[493]</sup>

Per the Articles of Confederation, the Continental Congress was responsible for coining and regulating currency. Each year, a Congressional committee convened to devise a plan for the nation's currency. They had been unable to resolve the currency issue until Jefferson, a member of the committee, suggested a feasible plan in 1785. He recommended the use of silver as the money standard with a secondary gold currency for sizeable amounts. He also formulated a system with reasonable denominations. Now, the Cincinnati sympathizers in Congress were even more anxious to send Jefferson off to France. Congress permanently disregarded his currency plans as well as his proposal for democratic government in the Northwest Territory. The Cincinnati Society conspiracy to overthrow the First Republic would have a greater chance for success if Congress were unable to stabilize a legitimate U.S. currency.<sup>[494]</sup>

Almost a century later, William Jennings Bryan, who favored the use of silver, said, "Those who are opposed to this proposition tell us that the issue of paper money is a function of the bank, and that the government ought to go out of the banking business. I stand with Jefferson rather than with them, and tell them, as he did that the issue of money is a function of government, and that the banks ought to go out of the governing business."<sup>[495]</sup> John Maynard Keynes wrote, "Lenin was right. There is no subtler, no surer means of overturning an existing economic system of a society than to debauch (corrupt) its currency with a bank-money substitute, reconditely injected into circulation by means of checks channeled through private check clearing houses. The process engages all the hidden forces of economic law on the side of creeping socio-economic destruction, and does it in a manner which not one man in a million is able to diagnose."<sup>[496]</sup>

Commoners wanted to counter the influence of the Society of Cincinnati. One such person wrote, "I am now fully persuaded that it (the Cincinnati) originated with Hamilton with a view to secure the influence of the military officers to seport (sic) an aristocratical faction of which he is the head in order to the Enterduction (sic) of Monarchy which I am much against."<sup>[497]</sup>

Congress sent Jefferson, the key opponent of Washington's scheme, to France in 1785. The South did not have a counterpart to cope against the power of the secret and invisible Society of Cincinnati. New York, a city filled with monarchist sentiments, viewed the Cincinnati as their best opportunity of avoiding "the threat of democracy." Hamilton aggressively defended the monarchist interests in New York City. However, the Cincinnati Society had intentions unknown by many of their non-member supporters because they deceptively presented their plans to outsiders, not the plans for a highly centralized oligarchy, but instead a plan, which they ambiguously called a "more perfect union."<sup>[498]</sup>

## **The Philoexian Society**

Adolph Franz Friedrich Ludwig Knigge (1752-1796), a German writer and Freemason who studied law in Göttingen (1769-1772), worked closely with Johann Adam Weishaupt (1748-1830), the founder of the Order of Illuminati, a secret society in Bavaria. Knigge facilitated the dissemination of Illuminism throughout Germany. The Eichstadt lodge, in Oberhavel, Brandenburg, Germany, under Mahomed (the Baron Schroeckenstein) illuminated Baireuth, in northern Bavaria, Germany, and other Imperial towns. Illuminism spread to Berlin under the influence of Baron Ben Leuchtsenring and Christoph Friedrich Nicolai, a bookseller residing in Berlin, who then illuminated the many of the elite in the provinces of Brandenburg and Pomerania. Practitioners in Frankfurt took Illuminism to Hanover. Weishaupt controlled all of the branches and directed the twelve individuals, known as adepts, who had attained a certain level of knowledge. Weishaupt, head of the whole conspiracy, lived in Munich.<sup>[499]</sup>

The Bavarian government officially destroyed the Order in 1785 after their officers discovered secret documents on the body of an Illuminati courier that lightning had evidently struck. The dispatch rider was carrying mail from Vienna to Paris – mail that contained plans to foment the French Rebellion (1789). However, despite this discovery, the Illuminati had already infiltrated numerous Masonic lodges whose members were intent on restructuring the state and destroying the church. A chapter, undoubtedly just one of many, later emerged in America as the secretive Brotherhood of Death, also known as the Order of Skull and Bones.<sup>[500]</sup> Members of the Order, per Weishaupt's directions, infiltrated into established organizations, usually viewed as acceptable groups one could join for fellowship purposes. Weishaupt intended to penetrate or develop other societies, religions or movements, all seemingly benign, from which to operate. Most people wholly underestimate the ability of the Illuminati to organize front groups, even political parties or philosophies.

Author Terry Melanson wrote, "Contrary to popular belief, most Masonic lodges outside of Bavaria were not completely purged of their Illuminism; and the Order – at the very least, its members – merely went underground, only to resurface later under the guise of reading societies and Jacobin clubs."<sup>[501]</sup> Between 1760 and 1800, individuals established approximately 430 reading societies in Germanic-speaking parts of Europe.<sup>[502]</sup> Students created one of the first literary societies in America, associated with a college, in the 1770s at Columbia University, which people knew as King's College. Alexander Hamilton (Class of 1778) and his roommate Robert Troup were key members. The society was defunct by 1795. However, another society, the Philolexian, known as Philo by the members, was established on May 17, 1802, the college's first permanent literary society for undergraduates.<sup>[503]</sup> Some of the earliest members of the Philolexian Society were Nathaniel Fish Moore, Columbia's eighth president, and James Alexander Hamilton, the son of Alexander Hamilton, the Treasury Secretary and the power behind the Federalists.

The Philolexian Society members spent "many nights with literary activities and political scheming."<sup>[504]</sup> The Society provided opportunities for students to hone their dialectical debating skills for future political maneuvering. One could compare the political machinations associated with the Society's elections to the shenanigans at Tammany. The Philolexian Society was one of the College's two literary societies; the other was the Peithologian Society.<sup>[505]</sup> Members, through their extracurricular experience, were often able to secure high government positions where they could influence the masses.

Philolexian Society members have exerted significant influence as they include eight U.S. Representatives, eight college presidents, five U.S. ambassadors, four governors, two U.S. Senators, and two New York City mayors. Member and journalist John L. O'Sullivan coined the phrase "manifest destiny" and promoted U.S. superiority and domination. The notable military theorist, Alfred Thayer Mahan, influenced Theodore Roosevelt and advocated U.S. militarism and imperialist expansion, was a Philolexian member. He was twice president of the U.S. Naval War College. Philolexian members have founded or co-founded numerous influential organizations such as Harcourt Brace, The New York Review of Books, Library of America, and the Writers Guild of America. Members have served as president of the New-York Historical Society, the New York Chamber of Commerce, National Academy of Sciences, Doubleday, Authors' League of America, American Physical Society, American Mathematical Society, American Historical Association, American Society of Civil Engineers and the American Academy of Arts and Letters among other organizations.

Researcher and author, Nesta Webster pointed out that the Illuminati, working under different identities, like the Fabian Society, literary societies, and other associations has succeeded in "gaining control over ordinary circulating libraries and bookshops, by placing at their head men or women who are definitely working for the propagation of revolutionary doctrines." Journalists and authors, under the guise of the so-called free press, manage to serve the cause with lengthy discourses on Socialism and demoralizing

modern fiction.<sup>[506]</sup>

Weishaupt said, “The great strength of our Order lies in its concealment; let it never appear in any place in its own name, but always covered by another name, and another occupation. *None is fitter than the three lower degrees of Free Masonry; the public is accustomed to it, expects little from it, and therefore takes little notice of it.* Next to this, the form of a learned or literary society is best suited to our purpose, and had Free Masonry not existed, this cover would have been employed; and it may be much more than a cover, *it may be a powerful engine in our hands. By establishing reading societies, and subscription libraries, and taking these under our direction, and supplying them through our labours, we may turn the public mind which way we will.*”<sup>[507]</sup> <sup>[508]</sup>

Andrew Carnegie and John D. Rockefeller financially collaborated on a strategy with the ultimate objective of indoctrinating the American and international population.<sup>[509]</sup> In conjunction with this objective, between 1900 and 1917, Andrew Carnegie’s foundation influenced and financed the construction of almost 1,700 libraries in the United States, from the east to the west coast.<sup>[510]</sup> However, the Carnegie Foundation insisted that local communities guarantee tax support before the construction of each library. These libraries served as social centers while they also functioned as a place where booksellers and publishers could sell their publications and realize profits. Alternatively, the libraries lent books for a small fee or one could purchase a subscription on a yearly, quarterly or monthly basis. The upper middle and elite class viewed these libraries negatively because they had full access to an education and reading materials.

Paul Marie Ghislain Otlet was the son of Édouard Otlet, a Belgian international financier and executive with substantial experience in building railroads in Europe and the United States. Paul Otlet was an author, lawyer and peace activist and people have viewed him as the father of information science, and a field he called “documentation.” He created the Universal Decimal Classification system. He wrote two books on how to collect and organize the world’s knowledge - the *Traité de Documentation*, (1934) and *Monde: Essai d’universalisme* (1935). Otlet advocated internationalist political ideas as represented in the League of Nations and its International Institute for Intellectual Cooperation. He collaborated with Henri La Fontaine, winner of the Nobel Peace Prize in 1913, to achieve their ideas of a new world community that they envisioned arising from the global diffusion of information and the creation of new kinds of international organizations.

One does not have to belong to the Illuminati to adopt their policies and disseminate their devilish dogma. Illuminati-influenced individuals frequently engage in the publication of reading materials that introduce the “ideals” they hope to impose on those they deem to be the lower classes. They first launch their socialistic beliefs among the most vulnerable members of society. They encourage the productivity of those writers who advocate their party line. As described in the Protocols, a rather prophetic, interesting document, “We must take care our writers be well puffed and that the reviewers do not depreciate them; therefore we must endeavour by every means to gain over the reviewers and journalists; and we must also try to gain the booksellers, who in time will see that it is their interest to side with us.”<sup>[511]</sup> Weishaupt wrote, “In like manner we must try to obtain an influence in the military academies (this may be of mighty consequence) the printing-houses, booksellers shops, chapters, and in short in all offices which have any effect, either in forming, or in managing, or even in directing the mind of man: painting and engraving are highly worth our care.”<sup>[512]</sup>

# Slavery and Emancipation

## Columbus in the Caribbean, Slavery and Slaughter

In 1506, regarding the Indians of the West Indies, Columbus wrote, “They were, and are, the wealth of that country. It is they who dig and produce bread and food for the Christians. It is they who extract gold from the mines; and perform all other services, not only of men, but of beasts of burden.”<sup>[513]</sup>

When Columbus arrived, there were between 70 and 100 million people living in the Americas, more than the population of Europe, which had only 60 or 65 million inhabitants. A century later, the settlers and explorers had catastrophically reduced the population of the Americas to a mere 12 to 15 million and by the end of the seventeenth century to eleven to thirteen million. This descending curve began to move upward in the eighteenth century, when the white populations began increasing.<sup>[514]</sup>

Slavery is obviously an appalling violation of natural law, as most people understand and view natural law, or the law of nature. Slavery is involuntary and without the consent of those compelled to labor for the financial benefit of others. Because nature itself established moral standards, therefore, it is applicable to everyone and everywhere. As used by the founders, natural law employs logic to examine human nature to determine requisite rules of ethical behavior. Many of the founders claimed to recognize and even publicly and formally advocate natural law as a regulatory monitor for human relationships, yet many of them were slave owners who retained their slaves for the duration of their lives. George Washington magnanimously freed his slaves in his will.<sup>[515]</sup> Hypocritically, the elite established the parameters of natural law but failed to apply it to people they considered below their cultural and social status and they certainly did not regard the indigenous population or African captives worthy of such considerations. Even then, as now, there existed an enormous, but apparently unheeded, discrepancy between political rhetoric and political behavior.

In Europe, land was the primary source for producing revenue so land ownership was understandably a necessity. Alternatively, private land ownership was non-existent in the African cultural and legal system, which has a lengthy history of slavery. In Africa, the upper classes owned and used slaves as the primary source of revenue-producing property. Inheritable, taxable wealth production exists in both cultures – whether it is products from the land or products from someone else’s labor. African slave trading was widespread prior to the European’s acceptance and participation in the institution. Britain’s elite and their slave trading partners utilized the existing slave delivery system to their benefit.

Central African slaves, indicative of the owner’s wealth, were dependent, loyal and valuable to their owners. They managed administrative tasks, functioned in the military and could acquire wealth and power as well as producing wealth for their masters. People outside of the Central African culture consistently viewed the slaves as not particularly valuable other than for revenue production. Traders and their agents kidnapped a majority of them. Therefore, they were expendable, especially in high volume commercial ventures. Early labor-intensive commercial crops like cotton, indigo, tobacco, and sugar generated the evolution of the plantation system. It required a very large labor force to maximize profits. In 1419, the Portuguese, who had a large naval fleet, “discovered” Madeira, an archipelago in the mid-Atlantic Ocean. They soon colonized it and planted sugar cane, which became the leading cash crop. In 1448, the Portuguese, in need of more labor, kidnapped more than 1,000 Africans to work on their plantations. Each year they seized an additional 800 to 900 Africans for slave labor.

In 1484, Columbus proposed his plan, the “Enterprise of the Indies,” to John II, “John the Perfect,” the King of Portugal. He wanted the king to equip three ships to search for a western route to the Orient. Unfortunately, the king was preoccupied with the potential civil war and disputes with Spain to consider

Portuguese sea exploration. Columbus also wanted the king to designate him as the “Great Admiral of the Ocean Sea” (the Atlantic Ocean), the appointment as governor of all lands that he discovered, and one-tenth of all the revenue from those lands. The king, his experts, and his scientific council rejected his proposals.<sup>[516]</sup>

The king may have been indignant over Columbus’s demands and his “overbearing manner.” However, he did consider his requests, even presenting the adventurer’s ideas to a scientific council who apparently decided that Columbus failed to convince them that there was a westward route to the Indies. Even after the council’s negative response, the king apparently remained interested in the project. He even secretly directed some navigators to take two vessels and sail west to determine if Columbus’s objectives were realistic. The ships returned as they had encountered strong head winds. The king abandoned the project, as he had no choice, due to the economic circumstances in his country. Columbus, still intent on the project, simply had to find the financial and political support elsewhere.<sup>[517]</sup>

Politicians, educators and some historians have all but canonized the son of mapmaker, Domingo Colón – Cristóbal Colón, now known as Christopher Columbus (1451-1506), a Genoese mapmaker, who received training in the Madeira sugar trade, which undoubtedly involved an affiliation with slavery. Those same people refer to him as the “great navigator,” as America’s first great hero. Numerous individuals, including many in the Jewish community, claim that his family was a Spanish-Jewish family that settled in Genoa, Italy. His Spanish-Jewish friends arranged for him to meet with the Spanish Monarchs in 1486.<sup>[518]</sup> Authors, Tina Levitan, Harry L. Golden and Martin Rywell claim that Columbus was a Jew. Golden and Rywell base their assertion on the statement of Ferdinand Columbus, Christopher’s son. He wrote that his father’s “progenitors were of the royal blood of Jerusalem.” Whether he was or was not a Jew, the Jews financed his exploration.<sup>[519]</sup> Columbus’ plan of sailing west from Iberia in order to find a faster route to the Indies proved incorrect. He wanted to establish a faster and more efficient course than traveling the overland trade route through Arabia. If his idea proved correct, Spanish traders could engage in the lucrative spice trade, which the Arabs and Italians had always dominated.

Luis de Santángel, a baptized Jew, functioned as the finance minister to Ferdinand II. Santángel’s grandfather had converted to Christianity because of the pervasive Spanish persecutions, but many members of his family and other Jewish families remained secret Jews (Marranos, Sephardic Jews). In 1486, through Santángel’s influence, Columbus presented his plan to Ferdinand and Isabella and following a consultation with others, they rejected it. Meanwhile, many European countries were expelling the Jews from their country. On January 13, 1489, Rabbi Chemor of Arles in Provence, France wrote the Grand Sanhedrin because the local population of Arles threatened the synagogues. On November 21, 1489, the Grand Satraps and Rabbis responded: “As for what you say that the King of France obliges you to become Christians: do it, since you cannot do otherwise, but let the law (Talmud) be kept in your hearts.” He advised the Jews to adopt the strategy of the “Trojan Horse.” He urged them to encourage their sons to become Christians, lawyers, doctors, and other professions in order to work within the society to destroy the cultural structure.<sup>[520]</sup>

In 1491, Columbus met privately with Queen Isabella and persuaded her to reconsider the possibilities of such a voyage. Luis de Santángel and Gabriel Sanchez provided almost five million maravedis (Iberian coins) to finance the voyage. In recognition of his financial assistance, on February 15, 1493, Columbus wrote a lengthy personal letter to Santángel to describe his discoveries.<sup>[521]</sup> Alfonso de la Caballeria and Diego de Deza also financially assisted Columbus.<sup>[522]</sup> On May 30, 1497, Ferdinand issued a royal decree that protected Santángel and his current and future family from the inquisition.

Abraham Zacuto, the Court Astronomer and Royal Mathematician to the Portuguese, prepared Columbus’ astronomical tables. Zacuto’s calculated that there would be a solar eclipse. Columbus, with this

knowledge, told the Jamaican natives that he would make the sun disappear if they harmed him or his crew. Don Isaac Abravanel, a biblical scholar, loaned Ferdinand and Isabella the money to finance their war with Granada. He also helped finance Columbus' voyage. Despite his assistance and status, Spanish officials expelled him and his family along with 300,000 other Jews. He went to Italy, the refuge of other expellees, perhaps even the family of Christopher Columbus.<sup>[523]</sup> He wrote *Ha-Hibur ha-Gadol*, a major astronomical work.<sup>[524]</sup> Many of the Jews immigrated to Holland, where they established the Dutch West Indies Company to exploit the New World.

Abraham Zacuto, after his expulsion from his native Spain, became the Royal Mathematician to the Portuguese royal court. In Portugal, he perfected the astrolabe (navigational instrument), created astronomical tables, and significantly improved navigational precision on the high seas. Columbus used Zacuto's tables for his journeys. Individuals have preserved these artifacts, along with Columbus' annotations, in Seville.<sup>[525]</sup>

Columbus, the fleet commander and navigator of three ships, the *Nina*, the *Pinta*, and the *Santa Maria*, set sail on August 3, 1492, the day after Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain expelled the last Jews from their lands through a decree they issued on March 31, 1492.<sup>[526]</sup> <sup>[527]</sup> The Jews had accumulated fortunes in slave trading and had moved up in Spain's hierarchy, acquired influential government positions, in the counting houses, and dominated regional trade. Thus, many concluded that they had too much power over the regional economy so the rulers told the Jews to convert to Christianity or leave.<sup>[528]</sup>

On the night of October 11, 1492, Columbus, on board the *Santa Maria* in the Atlantic Ocean and proceeding west, believed he saw a flicker of light in the distance. A while later, Rodrigo de Triana, a lookout on the *Pinta* sighted land.<sup>[529]</sup> On October 12, 1492, at two hours after midnight, de Triana fired the cannon to indicate the sighting of land. Just after dawn, Columbus set foot on a sandy atoll. He claimed the land for Queen Isabella and her husband King Ferdinand.<sup>[530]</sup> Instead of arriving in the Indies, he landed within the Bahamas Archipelago, off the coast of Guanaham, the name the natives gave to their island.

When the native Arawaks saw the three strange ships, they initially "fled to the hills." However, within a short time, curiosity overruled wisdom and they left the safety of the forests.<sup>[531]</sup> The Bahamas composed of twenty-nine islands, 661 cays, and 2,387 islets, are located in the Atlantic Ocean north of Cuba and Hispaniola (Dominican Republic and Haiti), northwest of the Turks and Caicos Islands. Columbus named the island after the Holy Saviour, San Salvador. Assuming that he had encountered Asia, he referred to the largest island as Hispaniola and its inhabitants as "los indios."

In his letter to Santángel, on February 15, 1493, Columbus wrote, "I have taken possession for their Highnesses by proclamation and display of the Royal Standard without opposition. To the first island, I discovered I gave the name of San Salvador, in commemoration of His Divine Majesty, who has wonderfully granted all this. The Indians call it Guanaham. The second I named the Island of Santa Maria de Concepcion; the third, Fernandina; the fourth, Isabella; the fifth, Juana; and thus to each one I gave a new name."<sup>[532]</sup> He wrote a similar letter to Gabriel Sanchez, treasurer of Aragon, dated March 14, 1493.

According to his diaries and letters, in addition to finding a new route, he also expected to find and confiscate wealth belonging to others. Ship captains merely planted a flag, like the Royal Standard that Columbus placed, or a cross and claimed whatever land they happened to "discover." Columbus was obviously aware of the Doctrine of Discovery and operated under its authority. He returned to the Caribbean by November 3, 1493 with a "force of seventeen ships" supplied by Isabella of Castile. Author James W. Loewen updated the traditional childhood verse to read, "In fourteen hundred and ninety-three, Columbus stole all (that) he could see."<sup>[533]</sup>

Seeing the profitable possibilities and a native work force and understanding profitable sugar cultivation,

he introduced sugar cane plantings in the Caribbean Islands on his second voyage and immediately installed himself as viceroy and governor of the islands and America's mainland, a position he held until 1500. By the sixteenth century, colonists on Santo Domingo, and then Cuba and Puerto Rico grew sugar cane using forced labor. Santo Domingo was the largest city in the Dominican Republic.

Columbus, in his journal, wrote about the characteristics of the natives in Cuba, "Naked innocence and quick response to the influences of kindness rather than acts of force... Their hair, thick as a horse's mane, falls in long locks upon their shoulders. They are shapely of body and handsome of face. So ignorant of arms are they that they grasp swords by the blade! They are very gentle, without knowing what evil is, without killing, without stealing."<sup>[534]</sup>

Columbus wrote to his Spanish sponsors, Ferdinand and Isabella, wherein he boasted that he could supply them with "slaves, as many of these idolatrous Indians as your highnesses can command to be shipped, along with as much gold as you need. Gold is most excellent. Gold is treasure and he who possesses it does all he wishes to do in this world."<sup>[535]</sup> In 1494, Michele de Cuneo wrote about his trip with Columbus into the interior of Haiti. "After we had rested for several days in our settlement, it seemed to the Lord Admiral that it was time to put into execution his desire to search for gold, which was the main reason he had started on so great a voyage full of so many dangers."<sup>[536]</sup>

In his letter to Santángel, on February 15, 1493, Columbus wrote, "Hispaniola is a marvel. Its hills and mountains, fine plains and open country, are rich and fertile for planting and for pasturage, and for building towns and villages. The seaports there are incredibly fine, as also the magnificent rivers, most of which bear gold. The trees, fruits and grasses differ widely from those in Juana. There are many spices and vast mines of gold and other metals in this island. They have no iron, nor steel, nor weapons, nor are they fit for them, because although they are well-made men of commanding stature, they appear extraordinarily timid."<sup>[537]</sup>

The European conquerors combined victory with proselytizing their version of Christianity, under the jurisdiction of the Doctrine of Discovery. After encountering inhabitants on "their" new land acquisition, the Spaniards read what they referred to as *requerimiento* (the requirement). In Spanish, a language foreign to the natives, an official would read, "I implore you to recognize the Church as a lady and in the name of the Pope take the King as lord of this land and obey his mandates. If you do not do it, I tell you that with the help of God I will enter powerfully against you all. I will make war everywhere and every way that I can. I will subject you to the yoke and obedience to the Church and to his majesty. I will take your women and children and make them slaves... . The deaths and injuries that you will receive from here on will be your own fault and not that of his majesty nor of the gentlemen that accompany me." Of course, the natives did not understand and therefore could not possibly comply by converting to a religion unfamiliar to their experience. However, having satisfied their obligation of giving the Indians an opportunity to become Christian, the Spaniards were then at liberty to exploit the naïve natives and seize their resources.<sup>[538]</sup>

Columbus' headquarters were on the large island he called Española, currently the two countries of Haiti and the Dominican Republic. He initiated slavery in conjunction with a systematic extermination policy against the indigenous Taino-Arawak population whose numbers were reduced, in four short years, from about 8,000,000 to about 3,000,000 by 1496. Taino is an Arawak word meaning peace. In 1498, Columbus, after an expedition with five ships, brought back 600 Indian slaves to Spain.<sup>[539]</sup> By 1500, when Columbus left the area, there were only 100,000 surviving natives. The Spaniards who remained as overlords retained his brutal policies.<sup>[540]</sup>

The Spanish colonists, under Columbus, engaged in vicious physical genocide. The Spaniards cut off hands, gouged out eyes, and ripped unborn babies from their mother's wombs.<sup>[541]</sup> The Spaniards also

engaged in the mass roasting of the Taino-Arawaks by hanging a dozen of them in a row over a blazing fire or in burning them individually at the stake. The “colonists” also participated in live burials. They brutally, apparently without conscience, hacked children into pieces to feed to their dogs, to the horror and incalculable anguish of their parents. These brutes wagered on who could slice a man’s abdomen open or cut off a head with one sword slash. They also dashed out infant’s brains by swinging the baby by its legs against the rocks or they would run these children through with a sword. They staged group kills where 100 or more soldiers slashed the unarmed Taino-Arawaks – men, women and children. The Spaniards methodically exterminated the terrified Taino-Arawaks to instill in them “a proper attitude of respect” toward their “superiors.”<sup>[542]</sup> The “colonists” worked other natives to death in the local gold mines, the mines that the invaders had summarily seized from the indigenous population. After the colonists had slaughtered most of the native populace, they resorted to kidnapping and transporting Africans to work in the mines and plantations.

The Spaniards systematically exterminated whole villages, people they viewed as subhuman animals, without a soul. They viewed it as a holy obligation to enslave and destroy them wherever they existed. Genocide apparently functioned as an early eugenics program based on survival, not of the fittest, but the morally unfit that just happened to possess superior weapons. Mass genocide is Columbus’ horrific legacy in Española, an example perpetuated by the conquistadors when they later invaded Mexico, Peru and La Florida.<sup>[543]</sup> Establishment historians, the mythmakers of the earthly nineteenth century, have whitewashed, concealed and otherwise concocted a foundation of deceptions regarding this monstrous, genocidal villain, only one of two individuals with his own holiday.<sup>[544]</sup> In 1937, President Franklin D. Roosevelt declared Columbus Day a federal holiday. Writers characterize his brutal military invasion of a populated island as a discovery (for Spain), which implies that the land was uninhabited, commentary on how the elites view “insignificant” natives. Elite imperialists habitually use this tactic to justify their seizures of resource-rich lands.

On December 27, 1512, officials in Burgos, Kingdom of Castile, instituted the Laws of Burgos, a set of codified guidelines governing the Spaniard’s treatment of the indigenous population in the Americas, initially on the island of Hispaniola and later extended to Puerto Rico and Jamaica. The laws forbade the mistreatment of the natives while advocating their conversion to Catholicism. They created the laws, obviously too late for millions of people, to avoid any legal problems that might arise as a result of the Spanish conquest and colonization of the Americas and the West Indies, where officials were supposed to apply the common law of Castile. This law provided “plausible deniability” for their continued contemptuous treatment of the indigenous population. Naturally, the Spanish overlords never enforced the Laws of Burgos.<sup>[545]</sup>

The Spaniards instituted a labor system, Encomienda, during their colonization of the Americas and the Philippines. The Spanish crown allotted individuals, usually conquistadors or soldiers, the right to extract tribute, such as gold or silver and other products, and labor from the natives who still technically owned the land. The recipient was responsible for the protection of his specified allocation of natives from warring neighboring tribes. He also instructed them in the Spanish language and the Catholic faith.

By 1514, the indigenous population totaled only 22,000 natives. By 1542, according to some records, only 200 natives survived. However, the Taino-Arawaks did not become extinct, as some have reported because many Taino-Arawaks had relocated to Cuba and managed to survive. When Columbus arrived, the whole Caribbean Basin Indian population numbered about 15,000,000.<sup>[546]</sup> The extermination of the Taino-Arawak population is certainly not an isolated incident but rather a precedent. The elite established a pattern of genocide against several indigenous populations in numerous countries throughout the world.

Other Spaniards invaded the Americas and following Columbus’ example, replicated the same horrific

behaviors. These include Diego Velázquez de Cuéllar who conquered Cuba in 1511. Others included Hernando Cortéz, who heard about the immense wealth of the Aztec Empire in Mexico, who with 600 men “gained favor” with Montezuma II and soon subdued the ancient city of Tenochtitlán and the Aztecs in 1519.<sup>[547]</sup> Others included Francisco Pizarro who assaulted the Inca Empire in South America, Ponce de León as governor of Puerto Rico (1509-1512, 1515-1519), Francisco Vázquez de Coronado y Luján in Mexico in 1540, and Hernando De Soto who explored the southwestern part of the United States.

These conquistadors met with opposition in the person of Hatuey, the Cacique (a combination of a tribal chief and a feudal prince). He had fled from the Spaniards after they had captured the island of Española (Haiti) to Cuba. He told the local natives that the white man’s god was gold. He tried to persuade the natives to dispose of their gold by throwing it into the river so that the white men “would leave them in peace.”<sup>[548]</sup> In 1542, Bartolomé de las Casas, a Spanish priest and “Protector of the Indians” wrote *A Brief Account of the Destruction of the Indies* in which he described the “massacres, butcheries, and all manner of cruelties, that Hell and Malice could invent, committed by the Popish Spanish.”<sup>[549]</sup> The Spanish killed millions of people for the sake of gold.

Hatuey, now a native chieftain in Cuba, valiantly resisted the invaders. For his courageous efforts, Velázquez, governor of Cuba (1514-1515) sentenced him to death by burning at the stake. Hatuey told his people, as recorded by the Spanish priest, Bartolomé de la Casa, “These tyrants tell us they adore a God of peace and equality, yet they usurp our land and enslave us. They speak of an immortal soul and of eternal rewards and punishments. They rob us, seduce our women and violate our daughters. Unable to match us in valour, these cowards cover themselves in iron that our spears cannot pierce.”<sup>[550]</sup> Hatuey showed the Cubans a basket full of gold and jewels and reportedly said, “Here is the God the Spaniards worship, for these they fight and kill; for these, they persecute us and that is why we have to throw them into the sea.”<sup>[551]</sup> When his captors urged Hatuey at the stake to embrace Christianity, so that his soul “might find admission into heaven,” he asked if the white men also went there after death. His captors responded in the affirmative and he exclaimed, “Then I will not be a Christian; for I would not go again to a place where I must find men so cruel!”<sup>[552]</sup>

Not only did the Spaniards kill Hatuey, they slaughtered all of the residents in a village of about 2,500 people. Bartolomé de la Casa described the event, “They (the Spaniards) set upon the Indians, slashing, disemboweling and slaughtering them until their blood ran like a river. And of those Tainos they kept alive they sent to the mines, harnessing them to loads they could scarcely drag and with fiendish sport and mockery hacking off their hands and feet and mutilating them in ways that will not bear description.” Today, miraculously, there are thousands of Taino descendants in Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, Florida, New York, California, Hawaii and even Spain.<sup>[553]</sup>

On August 31, 1532, on Guanaham, the Spaniards had cornered, captured and were preparing to execute Jiqui, just a poor boy who had responded to one of the oppressors, Carrasco. People would now refer to someone like Jiqui an insurgent. A witness to the brutality wrote, “I write now by candlelight, at the end of a horrible day. This is the Heaven the Castilla have brought us.” The witness continues, “He was tied chest and face to the thick post, his arms hugging around it, but I could see his face. His eyes scanned the crowd. The post itself was of the Xiki tree, a tough wood that will not burn once charred and hardened. Many poor Taínos have hugged that post before, but Jiqui was actually named after his death tree.”<sup>[554]</sup>

“Two men carried his chair to the back of the prisoner and the marshal gave him a short, razor sharp dagger. Carrasco, a thin, small man with a goat’s beard, held up the dagger and offered the Ave Maria. Then he thanked the marshal and the principal oidor (judge) for the privilege. Leaning over, he then poked the boy, Jiqui, in one buttock, getting a piece of the skin and slipping the dagger in a half inch. Jiqui groaned, then Carrasco’s dagger scraped bone and he yelled a loud, ‘Aiiii!’ The crowd gasped and the

soldiers and sailors laughed. Among the guards, several laughed loudly. One yelled to the lined-up Indians, ‘Hear the devil yelp, you dogs!’”<sup>[555]</sup>

“Carrasco looked up proudly. I could tell he was a nobody among the guards before this. Smiling, he raised the dagger to the guards, then put the point at Jiqui’s anus... Jiqui gasped and the guards began to titter loudly, but the marshal barked at Carrasco to, ‘stay with the sentence.’ Dutifully, Carrasco cut the calves then, two deep slits across each, just under the knees. Blood began to flow. Finished with the calves, Carrasco took a stab at the thick of one calf and Jiqui yelled again.”<sup>[556]</sup>

“Carrasco was carried away in his chair as two men with dogs on short leashes approached. Mastiffs of war, they sniffed blood excitedly and lunged for Jiqui’s bloody calves. The handlers held the dogs up on hind legs inches away from the calves. I wished to yell my love to the boy, but was silent. Next to me, I could tell the good friar was praying. At a signal from the marshal, the mastiffs were allowed close enough to lick the blood with their extended tongues, snarling up on hind feet. At a second signal, they tore in, one on each calf, tearing flesh in sharp bites as Jiqui yelled and yelled and yelled.”<sup>[557]</sup>

“The dogs were yanked away when they bit into bone. The two balls of the calves were gone. Two men with hot irons burned into the cavities left by the mastiffs and Jiqui slumped as if dead, but his eyes stayed open. Jiqui was untied and lashed by wrist and ankles to a thick iron bar, which was propped between two Y poles with dry brush gathered underneath. He was washed with water and, as he did move his head, he was made to drink copious amounts of it. Then the fire was started.”<sup>[558]</sup>

“All watched intently. Jiqui dangled by hands and feet six feet over the fire. His back blackened slowly, his hair singed and the horrible smell hung like a mist throughout the square. The sun grew intensely hot and you could feel the heat of the fire itself. He groaned for two hours before he expired, but no one left the square. Many Indians, including myself, cried quietly for Jiqui as he burned, and among the women in the slave group, I did hear the hummed refrains of our areito song of death, to accompany the separation of the goeiç from the body and the birth of the opia. Poor boy, I felt, how happy he might have been but for the existence of the Castilla on our lands!”<sup>[559]</sup>

According to three popular books, *The American Tradition*, *Land of Promise*, and *The American Way*, the Islamic Turks cut off the trade route the Europeans used to obtain spices. However, the Turks, who made money from trading in spices, had nothing to do with developing different routes to India. Since 1915, U.S. textbooks perpetuate the error that the Muslim Turks, per the West’s perception of them, are to blame instead of the Portuguese who blocked the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf in 1507. In fact, the Turks and the Moors allowed freedom of religion for the Jews and the Christians during the same time that European Christians persecuted and deported Jews and Muslims. In 1963, U.S. Representative Roland Libonati from Illinois proposed that Congress proclaim a national holiday for Columbus. Libonati said, “His Christian faith gave to him a religious incentive to thwart the piratical activities of the Turkish marauders preying upon the trading ships of the Christian world.”<sup>[560]</sup> J. J. Barry, M. D. in his pre-1892 book, *Life of Columbus* wrote, “The first object of the discovery, disengaged from every human consideration, was the glorification of the Redeemer and the extension of His Church.”<sup>[561]</sup>

By the end of the sixteenth century, slave traders shackled, chained about 9,500 slaves and crowded them into the unventilated cargo holds of ships bound for the Caribbean Islands or the Americas. In addition to the psychological suffering, food and water were inadequate and inferior, resulting in persistent diarrhea, seasickness, severe malnutrition, epidemics of typhoid fever, smallpox, and other diseases. Their captors regularly sexually molested female captives. The mortality rate for short voyages was between 5% and 10% and as high as 30% on longer voyages. Thereafter, survivors suffered wretched abuse and wore out their lives in the plantation system. Aleksandr I. Solzhenitsyn, in *The Gulag Archipelago* used the phrase “liquidation by labor,” a phrase that is applicable to millions of victims who have been forced into slave

labor by the elite.

In the eighteenth century, there were about 800 American-owned sugar and cotton plantations on the French island of Santo Domingo, the western part of the island of Hispaniola, now known as Haiti. About 30,000 white planters managed the profitable plantations while their soldiers controlled a half million black workers. Santo Domingo accounted for two thirds of all of France's overseas trade and surpassed the combined amount of all agricultural exports of the Spanish Indies. This commerce employed 15,000 sailors on approximately 1,000 ships. Cotton from Santo Domingo kept France's textile mills in business.

<sup>[562]</sup> Thousands of slaves labored on sugar plantations on Santo Domingo, one of the busiest slave ports in the triangle trade. Traders brought enslaved individuals to Haiti to work on the sugar plantations and sugar became the return cargo. Traders, who typically dealt in slaves and sugar, sold their products in the American colonies. Port-au-Prince was one of the capitals of the triangle trade. <sup>[563]</sup>

Obviously, intimidation, brute force or superior indoctrination is essential for a small group of men to control a large slave population. Infractions by slaves brought violent repercussions – whippings, sexual mutilations, rape, branding and even death. Disobedience might result in the guards nailing someone to a tree, or spraying a slave with hot wax, or a guard would slather a poor victim with molasses and position him/her in the path of swarming meat-eating ants. A guard could burn a slave alive, or cut off a body part with a machete and then force the victim to consume it. Death was often a blessing and the suicide rate was understandably high. <sup>[564]</sup>

Debt slavery in the U.S. and elsewhere works on those same basic principles. A select group creates and imposes the laws, then uses authority, the ABC bureaucratic agencies, to enforce them, with threats of heavy fines or incarceration for even the smallest infractions. The privileged elite, by design, are not subject to those same laws. The system usually works quite well unless a rebellious subordinate questions a lawmaker's activities. The media regularly disseminates the infractions, manufactured or real, which keeps the majority of the lower-level bureaucrats obedient to the system. Officials soon learn to acquiesce, shield each other, vote the right way and remain silent just to get along in the corrupt system.

By 1789, of the 1,000,000 slaves in the Caribbean, the slave population of Santo Domingo totaled 500,000 mostly African-born slaves, supervised by about 40,000 white colonials. They produced almost 40% of the world's sugar. On August 26, 1789, France's National Assembly published the *Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen*, drafted by the Illuminist, Emmanuel Joseph Sieyès, also known as the Abbé Sieyès, declaring all men free and equal. On August 22, 1791, the slaves on Santo Domingo courageously revolted and in the next two months killed 2,000 whites and burned or destroyed 180 sugar plantations and hundreds of coffee and indigo plantations. New Englanders, James and Samuel Perkins survived and returned home in 1792 where they organized a partnership with a couple of relatives and then they began trading in slaves, opium and other profitable goods.

The *Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen* certainly did not end the deplorable institution of slavery. However, Santo Domingo's slave uprisings instigated the Haitian Revolution (1791-1804), inspired by the words of the document. The revolt established Haiti as the first republic that blacks ruled. At that time, Haiti, a French colony, was the world's most profitable slave colony. Thousands of slaves lived in appalling conditions. The revolt, the first in the New World, led to the abolishment of slavery in 1794. However, Napoleon reinstated slavery by 1802. However, Santo Domingo declared its independence in 1804.

In 1938, Cyril Lionel Robert James, a Trinidad native, wrote *The Black Jacobins*. He was a socialist who had studied Marxism in England. It is the story of the Haitian revolution and describes the actions of the former slave Toussaint L'Ouverture (1743-1803) during the revolution. He attempted to rebuild Haiti's economy but the French killed him while he was in exile. A succession of well-paid despots

gradually crushed the resident's hard-fought freedom. Despite the alleged success of various revolutions, populations invariably become enslaved within a relatively short period. James wrote, "The transformation of slaves, trembling in hundreds before a single white man, into a powerful people able to organize themselves and defeat the most powerful European nations of their day, is one of the great epics of revolutionary struggle and achievement."<sup>[565]</sup>

## Emancipation of the Jews

Many European countries, around 1800, legally emancipated the Jews opening additional economic and academic opportunities. However, many families continued their long-standing economic activities and some even became more specialized in financing, including their system of network banking.<sup>[566]</sup>

The members of the Congress of Wilhelmsbad popularized the emancipation of the Jews. A Christian, Wilhelm von Dohm completed his book, *Upon the Civil Amelioration of the Condition of the Jews* in August 1781, eight years before the French Revolution. His book accelerated the progress of pro-Semitism, as opposed to anti-Semitism, throughout Europe. Dohm wrote his book under the tutelage of Moses Mendelssohn (1729-1786), a German Jewish philosopher whose ideas fomented Haskalah (the Jewish Enlightenment) in Europe. Dohm's book greatly influenced the new Jewish cause.<sup>[567]</sup> Mendelssohn's descendants include Fanny and Felix Mendelssohn (composers) and Joseph Mendelssohn the founder of Mendelssohn & Company, a private bank in Berlin, Germany in 1795. The alleged goal was universal liberty and equality for all, including the Jewish minority. However, in the process, its proponents intended to destroy religion, morality, and the reverence for marriage. Using the authority of the state, they would coerce parents to relinquish the responsibility for the education of their own children.<sup>[568]</sup>

Moses Mendelssohn was friends with Gotthold Ephraim Lessing, a German writer, philosopher, dramatist, publicist, and art critic who was an influential voice for the Enlightenment and Jewish emancipation. In 1771, Freemason officiators initiated Lessing into Freemasonry in the lodge "Zu den drei Rosen" in Hamburg. Although he defended the faithful Christian's right of freedom and thought, he argued against the idea of "revelation" and a literal interpretation of the Bible. Lessing defined the concept of the religious "Proof of Power:" How can miracles continue as a base for Christianity when we have no proof of miracles? He said that one could not use questionable historical "truths" to prove metaphysical truths (such as God's existence).<sup>[569]</sup>

Jewish historian, Heinrich Graetz acknowledged the immense importance of Wilhelm von Dohm's work, which characterized Christians as cruel barbarians and Jews as pitiful martyrs. As a result, contemplative individuals began to consider the Jewish question. Count Honoré Mirabeau, the French Statesman and key individual in the preparatory events of the French Revolution, became friends with Dohm while serving as ambassador in Berlin. Dohm introduced him to several disciples of the recently deceased Mendelssohn who convinced him to speak up in favor of the Jews. Consequently, Mirabeau published *Mirabeau's Letters During His Residence in England*, which was ideologically similar to Dohm's book. In 1781, Anacharsis Clootz, the future author of *La Republique Universelle*, wrote his pro-Semitic pamphlet called *Lettre sur les Juifs*.<sup>[570]</sup> Mayer A. Rothschild, with more influence, money and power would help "sweep away the chains of Jew Street" and advocate for Jewish enfranchisement as free citizens of Frankfurt rather than highly regulated serfs.<sup>[571]</sup>

James H. Billington wrote, "Mirabeau popularized the Illuminist term 'revolution in the mind' and introduced the phrase 'great revolution' and apparently invented the words 'revolutionary, counter-revolution, and counter-revolutionary.'"<sup>[572]</sup> He also adapted many of his "revolution" concepts directly from the Illuminati examples.<sup>[573]</sup> Mirabeau, when discussing France's emerging revolutionary political organizations, ostensibly "to regenerate" the nation, skillfully utilized language generally associated with

established religion, possibly to transfer longtime loyalties from God to a synthetic institution. He referred to the National Assembly as the “inviolable priesthood of national policy.” By thus sanctifying a manufactured institution into a holy entity, “a political gospel,” men, supported by their families, would be more willing to sacrifice and spill their blood in the planned warfare of future generations. In 1788, because of his experiences in Berlin, Mirabeau, “a founding father of the revolutionary tradition,” declared that Prussia was an appropriate place for a potential revolution, led by the German Illuminists.<sup>[574]</sup> He first used the word revolutionary on April 19, 1789, and by the fall, the word was in popular use.<sup>[575]</sup> Mirabeau, while exploiting religious terminology, was a major collector of literary pornography.<sup>[576]</sup>

Mirabeau and Henri Grégoire, who people referred to as the Abbe Grégoire, passed edicts in the National Assembly in 1791 mandating a Jewish emancipation. The Abbe Grégoire was a French Roman Catholic priest, a constitutional bishop of Blois, a city in central France, and a Jesuit-educated revolutionary leader. The statutes that Mirabeau and the Abbe Grégoire passed forbade the exclusion of Jews from Masonic lodges. This legislation was the direct result of the resolutions passed by the Masonic Congress of Wilhelmsbad, purportedly attended by and a group of Jews wishing to embrace Freemasonry. The Congress also decided to relocate the headquarters of illuminized Freemasonry to Frankfurt, dominated by Jewish bankers such as the Rothschilds, the Oppenheims, the Wertheimers, the Schusters and others. Members of the Frankfurt Lodge implemented the massive plan for world revolution. In 1786, at a Masonic Congress, two French Freemasons allegedly plotted to kill Louis XVI and Gustav III of Sweden.<sup>[577]</sup>

Prince Wilhelm of Hesse, who some allege was a co-founder of the Illuminati, was a nephew of the King of Denmark, and a brother-in-law to the King of Sweden. Gustav III (1746-1792) was also a devotee of the French enlightenment ideas. In 1772, Gustav had dictated a new oath of allegiance, which absolved the oath takers from their allegiance to the Estates of the Realm (four different divisions) and bound them to obey “their lawful king, Gustav III.” Gustav followed the path of other sovereigns of the “age of enlightenment.” He reformed the criminal justice laws, introduced new economic policies, and proclaimed limited religious liberty.

In 1789, King Gustav III persuaded the Swedish Parliament to begin issuing debt-free paper money called riksdalers through the Swedish National Debt Office. The private bankers, who had been making a tidy profit, were not happy about this turn of events. Just three years later, on March 16, 1792, Jacob Johan Anckarström and his co-conspirators surrounded King Gustav III at a dinner party and Anckarström shot him. The king did not die immediately but lingered until March 29. Thereafter, the Anckarström family changed their name to Löwenström. During Sweden’s war with Russia, the government printed too much currency. Warfare-associated inflation destroyed the concept of debt-free currency by 1834. When a government issues debt-free currency, it must also control the quantity and circulation.

Many countries have banished the Jews. According to one author, Andrew Carrington Hitchcock, the officials of several countries have banished Jews at least forty-seven times, in a period covering 1,000 years – Mainz, 1012; France, 1182; Upper Bavaria, 1276; England, 1290; France, 1306; France, 1322; Saxony, 1349; Hungary, 1360; Belgium, 1370; Slovakia, 1380; France, 1394; Austria, 1420; Lyons, 1420; Cologne, 1424; Mainz, 1438; Augsburg, 1438; Upper Bavaria, 1442; Netherlands, 1444; Brandenburg, 1446; Mainz, 1462; Mainz, 1483; Warsaw, 1483; Spain, 1492; Italy, 1492; Lithuania, 1495; Portugal, 1496; Naples, 1496; Navarre, 1498; Nuremberg, 1498; Brandenburg, 1510; Prussia, 1510; Genoa, 1515; Naples, 1533; Italy, 1540; Naples, 1541; Prague, 1541; Genoa, 1550; Bavaria, 1551; Prague, 1557; Papal States, 1569; Hungary, 1582; Hamburg, 1649; Vienna, 1669; Slovakia, 1744; Moravia, 1744; Bohemia, 1744; and Moscow, 1891.<sup>[578]</sup>

Professor Jesse H. Holmes, in *The American Hebrew*, a weekly journal first published in New York city,

on November 21, 1879, wrote, “It can hardly be an accident that antagonism directed against the Jews is to be found pretty much everywhere in the world where Jews and non-Jews are associated. And as the Jews are the common element of the situation it would seem probable, on the face of it, that the cause will be found in them rather than in the widely varying groups which feel this antagonism.”<sup>[579]</sup> Professor Jesse H. Holmes (1864-1942) was a Quaker philosophy professor at Swarthmore College (1900-1937). F. de Sola Mendes and Philip Cowen, of the American Hebrew Publishing Company, published *The American Hebrew* and invited educators, including Professor Holmes, to contribute to their Religio-Literary Symposium.<sup>[580]</sup>

In 1791, the French National Assembly issued an edict, “The National Assembly, considering that the conditions requisite to be a French Citizen, and to become an active citizen, are fixed by the constitution, and that every man who, being duly qualified, takes the civic oath, and engages to fulfill the duties prescribed by the constitution, has a right to all the advantages it insures; Annuls all adjournments, restrictions, and exceptions, contained in the preceding decrees, affecting individuals of the Jewish persuasion, who shall take the civic oath...”

Frankfurt was one of the first cities that emancipated the Jews and gave them civil rights. His superiors appointed Baron Karl Theodor von Dalberg, a high-ranking member of the Illuminati<sup>[581]</sup> and the Prince-Bishop of Mainz, as the sovereign of Frankfurt city officials incorporated the city into the new French-dominated Confederation of the Rhine. Many people referred to Dalberg as the emancipator of the Jews. The author Amos Elon wrote, “He was well disposed towards the Landgrave and he seems to have had some business dealings with Rothschild in the past.” When Dalberg needed cash for political or diplomatic uses, he could always go to Rothschild when the other bankers refused to lend him money.<sup>[582]</sup> Rothschild evidently approved of Dalberg’s political and diplomatic uses of the money he lent him. Perhaps Rothschild even suggested the ways in which Dalberg should promote certain programs, including the emancipation of the Jews.

Masonic officials allowed the Jewish Freemasons to remain in the local lodges. On February 8, 1811, Dalberg declared the Edict of Emancipation stating that all Jews and their descendants living in Frankfurt would have the same privileges and rights as other citizens. It did not take effect until December 28, 1811.<sup>[583]</sup> For this, the Jews paid him 440,000 florins, financed by Mayer, in consideration of which Dalberg abolished the annual protection tax of 22,000 florins.<sup>[584]</sup> Mayer Rothschild helped “sweep away the chains of Jew Street” and advocated for the “Jews’ enfranchisement as free citizens of Frankfurt” instead of highly regulated serfs.<sup>[585]</sup>

## **New England Slave Trading**

In 1602, the parliament of the Netherlands granted a charter to the Dutch East India Company for a twenty-one year monopoly to implement colonial activities in Asia. The Company was the world’s first multinational corporation in addition to being the first company to issue stock. It held governmental powers and could negotiate treaties, wage war, imprison and execute convicts, coin money, establish colonies and manipulate the host country’s military to accomplish their exploitive objectives. Between 1602 and 1796, the Company dispatched about a million Europeans to engage in the Asian trade. The controlled 4,785 ships and transported over 2.5 million tons of Asian goods. Conversely, all of Europe’s commerce combined employed only 882,412 people (1500 to 1795). The Company’s main competitor, the British East India Company, had 2,690 ships and one-fifth the amount of goods. The Dutch East India Company remained in business for almost 200 years, finally going bankrupt in 1800 when it officially dissolved its business.

Joint stock companies became popular – the British East India Company (1600), the Company of

Adventurers of London (1618) and the South Sea Company. London, Liverpool and Bristol merchants were all active in slave trading until 1807.<sup>[586]</sup> These corporations competed with the Dutch East India Company and the Dutch West India Company, all in business to make money regardless of how they did it. Their fundamental vehicle for accumulating wealth was the establishment of colonies and trading posts in the New World where they exploited the physical resources for exportation to Europe and their other colonies. These activities necessitated thousands of African slaves. One of the Company's founders, William Usselinx, of Amsterdam, said, ““Some people were so vile and slavish by nature that they were of no use either to themselves or to others and had to be kept in servitude with all hardness.” The Company funded his operations by selling shares and through pirating of Spanish and Portuguese ships and pillaging their cargoes.<sup>[587]</sup>

There were two corporations with similar names, not to be confused with one another – the Dutch *East* India Company and the Dutch *West* India Company. On June 2, 1621, the Republic of the Seven United Netherlands granted a charter for a trade monopoly to the Dutch West India Company. The charter allowed the corporation to take jurisdiction over the African slave trade in Brazil, the Caribbean, and North America. The corporation could operate in West Africa (between the Tropic of Cancer and the Cape of Good Hope) and the Americas, which included the Pacific Ocean and the eastern part of New Guinea. The corporation, with the charter, intended to eliminate competition, especially with the Spanish or Portuguese and the various merchant trading posts. The company was instrumental in the Dutch colonization of the Americas, in New Netherlands (1614-1667) and New Amsterdam (1625). The first Jews arrived in New Amsterdam (later named New York), which Peter Stuyvesant ruled, in the year 1654. The Dutch village at the tip of Manhattan Island had a population of less than a thousand.<sup>[588]</sup>

In early 1654, the Portuguese recaptured Recife from the Dutch and expelled 150 Jewish families of the “wealthy merchant class,” giving them three months to sell their homes and prepare for their departure. Max I. Dimont explains the arrival of some of them in New Amsterdam – in May 1654, the Jews of Brazil set sail in sixteen ships bound for Holland. The wind blew one of the ships, carrying twenty-three Sephardi Jews, off course. Spanish pirates captured the ship and its cargo, probably the slaves of the whole group. The Spanish then sank the vessel. The men on a French ship, the *St. Charles*, witnessed the event and rescued the twenty-three prisoners. The French took the “penniless Jews” to the nearest port, New Amsterdam. Currently, more Jews live in New York than any other place on earth, including Israel.<sup>[589]</sup>

Peter Stuyvesant (1612-1672), former director of the Dutch West India Company's colony of Curaçao (1642-1644), and now director of its western affairs, was the last Dutch Director-General of New Netherland (1647-1664) because he ceded the colony to the English in 1664. He had just received a shipment of African slaves from Curaçao. He petitioned the Company's directors to “exclude further Jewish colonists.”<sup>[590]</sup> His administration constructed the protective wall on Wall Street and the canal that became Broad Street or Broadway. On July 8, 1654, his superiors at the Dutch East India Company of Holland sent their employee, Jacob Barsimson to New Amsterdam where he arrived on August 22, 1654. During the next decade, others from Holland followed Barsimson and settled on the East Coast, in New Amsterdam and Newport, Rhode Island. Through an official ordinance, Stuyvesant prohibited the Jews from participating in the economy. Therefore, they determined to exploit the people and the resources in the land occupied by the indigenous population, as the ordinances were not applicable to trading with the natives.<sup>[591]</sup> Stuyvesant also prohibited the sale of liquor and firearms to the Indians.

The majority of all American slave trading activity emanated from New England, manned by northern crews.<sup>[592]</sup> They built the first slave ship in America, *Desire*, in 1637, not long after the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth Rock. It was just the first of many ships used for slave trading.<sup>[593]</sup> Merchants recognized that the Colonists benefitted from the extra work force. They had to build homes, clear fields, and plant and

harvest crops. Given that the South was more agrarian due to the climate and fertile soil, it was particularly true for that part of the country. Indentured servants and freed prisoners performed those labors for a time but they earned their freedom after seven years. It was much more profitable to kidnap and sell Africans who worked their entire life.<sup>[594]</sup>

In 1646, Massachusetts had legalized slavery, which would allow anyone to seize any Indian who he judged a manslayer, traitor or conspirator. New Englanders enslaved so many Indians that they started exporting them to Bermuda, Barbados and other Caribbean Islands. This instigated the Yankee slave trade that lasted legally until 1808 and illegally until after Lincoln's War. Conversely, the Commonwealth of Virginia criminalized the enslavement or deportation of Indians under any circumstances.<sup>[595]</sup> The General Assembly of Virginia, under Governor Patrick Henry, outlawed the slave trade there on October 5, 1778. This law immediately freed any slave brought into the commonwealth.<sup>[596]</sup>

Upon arrival in the Southern port cities, the crew transferred the slaves to a location where traders auctioned them off to the highest bidders. The traders took those who were, for some reason, not sold, to Newport where they sold them cheaply as household labor. By 1756, the city of Newport and the surrounding vicinity was home to 4,697 African slaves. The officials in most North American Colonies prohibited slavery and slave trading despite the attempts of the slave traders to legalize slavery in each of the states. Anti-slavery proponents in Philadelphia, Ralph Sandiford, Benjamin Lay, John Woolman, and Anthony Benezet attempted to eliminate slavery.

Britain became involved in slave trading during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The newly established triangular trade – slaves from Africa, sugar from the islands and rum from New England – was the basis of British mercantilism. They transported about 2,000,000 Africans to the colonies between 1680 and 1786. Traders transported at least 104,000 slaves just in 1768.<sup>[597]</sup>

Slavery was a part of New England's culture for over 200 years. Newport, Rhode Island and Boston, Massachusetts were the two biggest slave ports on the Atlantic coast. They used slaves to build many of the ships that they used to transport even more abducted Africans. New Englanders used their slaves for the most arduous, burdensome, dangerous tasks. Their slaveholders regularly sexually victimized female slaves. Then, industrialization made slavery economically unfeasible. Gradual emancipation, not having ownership responsibility for dozens or even hundreds of people, was not a humanitarian change of consciousness but rather an economic consideration.<sup>[598]</sup>

In as much as traders sold their captive Africans to people in Spanish colonies, Spain created the Assiento, a document that grants permission to the traders of another country. Britain and Spain had such an agreement beginning in 1713. British officials relinquished these trading rights to the South Sea Company, a British joint stock company founded in 1711. By 1719, the South Sea Company had interesting financial connections to the Bank of England and the British East India Company.

Reverend Cotton Mather (1663-1728), a socially and politically influential New England Puritan minister, said, "Your servants will be the Better Servants for being made Christian servants." Christianize them, and they will be "afraid of speaking or doing anything that may justly displease you."<sup>[599]</sup> Northerners, who portray themselves as moral humanitarians, are equally, if not more culpable for America's slavery system than the southerners. They enslaved and traded unwary initially friendly Indians for African slaves in the Caribbean Islands.<sup>[600]</sup> Most of the traders lived in the North. Additionally, several New England insurance companies gained economic status by insuring slaves as property before the surviving captives even arrived in the U.S. They included the Newport Insurance Company, the Bristol Insurance Company, Mount Hope Insurance Company, and the Aetna Insurance Company.<sup>[601]</sup>

Harriet Beecher Stowe, author of the emotionally deceptive abolitionist novel *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, said

this was slavery the way northerners liked it, “all of the benefits and none of the screams.”<sup>[602]</sup> Stowe was referring to the fact that the northerners benefited from the slavery at a distance. The shackled slaves in Africa hauled ivory for endless miles and often perished from exhaustion and insufficient sustenance by the time they reached the coast just to supply ivory for New England manufacturers. Then there were the slaves who labored their wretched lives away on a Caribbean sugar plantation to enrich greedy planters and the increasing sugar addiction among “civilized society” which, of course, included the North.

Bertram Wallace Korn, writing for the Jewish Publication Society of America wrote, “Individual Jews, of course, had participated in the development of the institution of slavery, as well as in the discussion of its merits, from the very first. Jewish merchants of Newport, Rhode Island, had been active, before the Revolution, in the well-known ‘triangle trade’ which brought African slaves to the colonies.”<sup>[603]</sup>

Hayman Levy (1721-1789) helped found the Congregation Mickvé Israel, in 1782. He was a prominent merchant in New York, and was John Jacob Astor’s first employer.<sup>[604]</sup> Levy claimed to be the leader in western commerce and the largest fur dealer in the colonies.<sup>[605]</sup> After the Revolution (1775-1783), Levy and Solomon Simson bought some property from Isaac Roosevelt (1726-1794), a member of the New York Provincial Congress, to create a cemetery close to their congregation.<sup>[606]</sup> Levy imported cheap glass beads, textiles, earrings, and other inexpensive products from Holland and soon began trading with the natives. Nicholas Lowe and Joseph Simon joined Hayman in his trading activities.<sup>[607]</sup> Levy, Lowe and Simon left New York and set up a distillery in Newport and produced rum and whiskey. Soon, there were twenty-two distilleries in Newport, the site of early slave commerce and east coast trade center for rum, whiskey, and other liquors. Of the 128 slave ships that transported human cargo from Africa, 120 of them were from Newport and Charleston. In addition to the northern traders, individuals in Charleston, South Carolina established rum and whiskey distilleries and began dealing with the African Coast natives, trading rum and whiskey for humans.<sup>[608]</sup>

Aaron Lopez (1731-1782), a merchant originally from Lisbon, Portugal, was part of the Converso (converted) community of Portugal. To practice Judaism, he, with his family, left Portugal and immigrated to Newport, Rhode Island in 1752 to join his older brother, Moses.<sup>[609]</sup> In Newport, Lopez established associations with gentiles, including Ezra Stiles, the Congregational minister and allegedly a Freemason. Stiles, who learned the Hebrew language, learned about Kabbalah, made friends with numerous members of Newport’s Jewish community while he lived there. Stiles later became president of Yale College (1778–1795), future home of Skull and Bones. He also became its first professor of Semitics.<sup>[610]</sup> Stiles, granted George Washington an honorary degree (Doctor of Laws) on April 26, 1781.<sup>[611]</sup> After the death of his wife in 1762, Lopez married Sarah, the daughter of his business partner, Jacob Rodriguez Rivera. When the Revolutionary War began, Lopez’s business decreased dramatically so he evacuated his family to Leicester, Massachusetts in 1778. During the next four years, he became a key supplier to the American forces. In 1782, Lopez accidentally drowned in Smithfield, Rhode Island leaving behind a grieving wife and fifteen children.<sup>[612]</sup>

Lopez had become one of the most prominent slave traders during the years from 1761 to 1774. His business accounted for more than 50% of all trading in the country and he became the wealthiest person in Newport, Rhode Island. By 1750, due to numerous individuals engaging in slave trading in the north, one sixth of the population in New York was of African descent. Lopez, who owned thirty ships by the time of the American Revolution, sent ships to the African coast where his captains used rum to intoxicate those they were bargaining with who were associated with the African Agency, an organization that prepared the kidnapped Africans to sale. This agency brought people from the depths of the interior. Contention between the African tribes erupted as they attempted to deal with what was occurring to their tribal communities. The slave traders were simply interested in numbers, not the impact it was making. The

traders exchanged rum, ammunition and weapons to Africans who delivered up captives to the traders.<sup>[613]</sup>

Nathan Mayer Rothschild, whose family profited from the rental of conscripted Hessian soldiers, also benefited financially from slavery. Despite Rothschild's overt opposition to slavery, Niall Ferguson received access to archives in Britain that reveal that Nathan Rothschild participated in the slave trade and was part of the slave speculation associated with the Manchester Exchange and later on the London stock exchange. N. M. Rothschild permitted the use of slaves to collateralize slave owner's debts.<sup>[614]</sup>

When Congress adopted the Constitution, they rejected Thomas Jefferson's proposal to outlaw slavery. On March 2, 1807, Jefferson signed a bill to abolish slave trading. The British Parliament banned the importation of slaves and slave trading with the Slave Trade Act of March 25, 1807.<sup>[615]</sup> On January 1, 1808, officials banned the further importation of slaves into the U.S. Slaveholders supported the prohibition as they viewed the legislation as an opportunity to "artificially inflate the price of their slaves."<sup>[616]</sup> Typically, the criminalization or prohibition of anything provides an opportunity for corrupt people, in and out of the government, to make higher profits on numerous activities and commodities, like drugs and alcohol.

By 1788, Astor was the Master of the Holland Lodge No. 8 in New York City, a lodge with ties to the Illuminati. Astor, a Freemason, apparently had some special connections with the Brits as he also made a fortune selling opium into China in association with Britain's East India Company. Baring Brothers had adapted the company as a vehicle for the opium trade with Astor in New York and a network in Philadelphia, Boston and other cities. Astor leveraged his drug profits into real estate in Manhattan, which laid the foundation for one of America's largest fortunes.<sup>[617]</sup> President Thomas Jefferson and Secretary of the Treasury Albert Gallatin allowed Astor to evade the embargo imposed on ships in order to get his furs to England.

Jefferson insinuated that Virginia slave owners were progressing towards equality and emancipation. Astor understood that equality was unattainable for a man without property. Liberty, he thought, enabled a humble man the opportunity to advance but to allow a common worker a voice in political affairs was improper. Many politicians shared his view and deliberately designed state constitutions to maintain control "in the hands of property." This concept was deeply entrenched in the Illuminati movement, a vehicle for enlightenment, of John Jacob's youth. The Illuminati believed in compassionate dictatorship by illustrious people. By the time, John Jacob moved to London, the Bavarian government had banned the Illuminati. However, Thomas Jefferson, Albert Gallatin, George Clinton, and John Jacob Astor reportedly were all Illuminati.<sup>[618]</sup>

Africans were *purportedly* more suitable and could withstand the heat, disease and the labor required to raise and process sugar cane in the island tropics, a simply preposterous notion. Africans supposedly survived circumstances under which white men and even the indigenous natives died. Of course, Africans died also – about a third of them died during their first two years in captivity. Coffee, tobacco, indigo, and sugar plantations used about 90% slave labor prior to 1820. Slave-labor products comprised the largest economic enterprise by the end of the 17<sup>th</sup> century, all driven by the British, the Spanish, French, Portuguese and later the New Englanders who transported and traded shackled Africans, unfortunate enough to have been captured. With the growing addiction for sugar, traders seized over 6,000,000 Africans who they took to plantations in Brazil, the Caribbean and North America.<sup>[619]</sup>

Traders chained traumatized captives together and force-marched for weeks through the bush to the coast. Many became ill, exhausted and unable to continue. Those who faltered were whipped and left to die. Of those who came from the interior, nine out of ten perished before they ever arrived in America. At least 1,000,000 Africans arrived in America each year leaving millions who perished during their forced exodus. At the coast, agents began their incessant bargaining while examining the human booty, checking

for broken bones, sickness, evaluating age and gender, and other characteristics that determined the price. The typical price on the coast was between \$20 and \$40; traders re-sold them for \$2,000.<sup>[620]</sup>

The ship's crew branded the captives with a hot iron to identify them as property, as if they were cattle. Traders split up devastated families among the numerous ships, unsure of their destination or if they would ever re-unite. Some captives attempted to escape by jumping into the sea as their captors rowed them out to the ship. Some drowned while others were re-captured and had their legs chopped off as a warning to others who thought about escape. The crew segregated men, women and children within the ship. Men and women, in their separate locations in the hold of the ship, lay chained, enduring for at least three months, in the indescribable filth and the stench of human excrement. Inevitably, many captives sickened and died and were thrown in the sea, pregnant women gave birth; younger women were repeatedly raped by the captain and the crew.<sup>[621]</sup>

During the Atlantic slave trade, they imported more than 75% of all slaves before 1810. The cotton industry was only in its early stages in 1810 in the U.S. The huge increase in the slave trade, of 5.7 million, which occurred in the eighteenth century, was not because of the tobacco imports into Europe during that period. It was not cotton or tobacco that triggered the greatest demand for slaves; it was sugar, an extremely labor-intensive cash crop. Between 60% and 70% of all seized Africans worked in the sugar colonies.<sup>[622]</sup>

## Slave Status before the War

In the mid-nineteenth century, the three most prominent slave economies were Brazil, Cuba and the U.S. attributable to the production and exportation of cotton, coffee and sugar. The slave population in the U.S. quadrupled between 1790 and 1860 from natural increase, not from importation of seized Africans. Natural increase was not a factor in the slave population growth in Cuba or Brazil but was due to importation and the replenishment of those who perished. The life of a slave in the Caribbean compared to the life of a slave in the southern states was dramatically different because of better living conditions and treatment. Between 1790 and 1860, they imported approximately 800,000 Africans into Cuba and transported about 2.2 million to Brazil. In all three areas, whether from natural increase or importation, they considered forced labor a product, like the cotton, tobacco or sugar they produced. After 1807, they imported relatively few Africans into the U.S. or the British Caribbean.<sup>[623]</sup>

In the nineteenth century, prices for native-born, more acclimated slaves in the U.S., Cuba and Brazil were well over \$1,000 for unskilled labor. Because of the high volume, prices for seized Africans decreased to well under \$100 after 1807. One could purchase a young adult male for as little as \$30 on the Congo River in the 1860s.<sup>[624]</sup> People characterized as the elite pillars of society carried out the slave trading activities. Establishment historians regularly sanitize their dreadful deeds. People have thoroughly documented the disastrous long-term effects of slave and drug trading and human trafficking. Those same traders used the proceeds acquired from generating human misery to purchase respectability, status and political offices.<sup>[625]</sup>

Many Southerners worked side by side with their slaves. Black mammies breast-fed white babies. After emancipation, many blacks stayed with their white families or if they left, they continued to interact on a social basis. Many New Englanders thought emancipated slaves should be deported or colonized elsewhere, in Haiti or Africa, with climates, they thought, that were suitable for “niggers.” According to the majority of New Englanders, assimilation for freed slaves was unthinkable. Black codes prevented Africans from settling in certain areas or required fees. Freed slaves were subjected to harsh punishment such as beatings, property seizures, and monetary fines, all legalized by white courts.

On August 8, 1860 a patroller, the *U.S.S. Mohican* seized several U.S. ships, registered in New York, in West Africa’s coastal waters. Eight ships, belonging to Nathaniel Gordon, carried 4,750 slaves en route to New York. According to a *New York Times* article, officers from the *U.S.S. Mohican* boarded the slave ship, the *Erie*. They found, “eight hundred and ninety-seven Negroes, men, women and children, one-fourth men and one-fourth women.... so crowded when on the main deck that one could scarcely put his foot down without stepping on them. The stench from the hold was fearful, and the filth and dirt upon their persons indescribably offensive. They were stowed so closely that during the entire voyage they appeared to be in great agony... running sores and coetaneous diseases of the most painful as well as contagious character infected the entire load.”<sup>[626]</sup>

Another patroller supervised the *Erie* to Monrovia, Liberia. The ships arrived there on August 23, 1860 with only 867 slaves as thirty had perished during the trip. The Africans were unloaded and placed with the American Colonization Society. On August 29, after outfitting the ships, they left for New York and arrived there on October 3, 1860. Authorities arrested Gordon, first Mate William Warren and Second Mate David Hall for slave trading. The Southern District Court of New York indicted them on October 29, 1860. James Roosevelt, the District Attorney, Theodore’s granduncle asked for a delay.<sup>[627]</sup> The court sentenced Gordon to death on November 30, 1861. The defense appealed to Lincoln for a pardon, which he rejected on February 4, 1862. Then the defense appealed to the Supreme Court where Chief Justice Roger B. Taney denied the appeal. Authorities hung Gordon on February 7, 1862. His final words were “I

did nothing wrong.”<sup>[628]</sup> Gordon, the first U.S. citizen executed for slave trading, originally came from Maine. About 25,000 New Yorkers petitioned Lincoln to commute his sentence, commentary on their views of slaves and slave trading.<sup>[629]</sup>

## **Keeping the Elite Master Race Pure**

In the 1700s, the elites viewed all indentured servants as “slaves” – humans that they viewed as commodities. More than half of all white immigrants to England’s North America colony during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were indentured servants. The elites granted freedom to both black and white indentured servants after serving a specified length of time, typically seven years. The indentured servants worked, lived, and socialized together, apparently indifferent to skin color distinctions. The colonial elites, a definite minority grew concerned about a potential rebellion from the majority non-voting lower economic classes. Consequently, they enacted legal measures to divide the poor whites and blacks and gradually the slave’s mutual acceptance of each other subsided. Society was largely composed of servants, landless tenants or small yeoman who owned inconsequential pieces of land that the elite simply did not want. The elites established a “divide and conquer” tactic that still exists in most of the industrial and third world cultures.<sup>[630]</sup>

Edmund S. Morgan pointed out, “For those with eyes to see, there was an obvious lesson in the rebellion. Resentment of an alien race might be more powerful than resentment of an upper class.”<sup>[631]</sup> With that awareness, we can readily comprehend the contrived ineffectiveness in maintaining security along our southern borders. Citizens may then angrily vent about the illegal aliens while ignoring the self-serving activities of Washington’s elite ruling class who remain socially and financially unaffected by the hordes of hungry people seeking a livelihood that is no longer available in their own countries, the result of the elite’s economic warfare perpetrated in Mexico. Further, the elites will justify global governance based on the homogenization of the races. After all, they might assert, why maintain distinct nations when nationalities are non-existent and people have assimilated with each other.

The English and French elites relegated the Africans they had imported into their countries during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries to the very bottom rung of society. The African slaves endured the same lowly status as the poor white multitudes. Officials in both countries, Britain and France, accepted intermarriage between blacks and whites. Many of Britain’s colonial leaders in the many British outposts also accepted interracial marriage due to the ethnicity existing in most of those colonies. However, French officials changed their policies and soon restricted the importation of slaves and passed legislation to prohibit intermarriage but they did not strictly enforce the ban.<sup>[632]</sup>

Then, colonial lawmakers also outlawed interracial marriage and rigorously altered the criminal codes in their efforts to mete out harsher punishments to blacks, compared to whites who committed the same crime. They viewed the white population, even the poorest, as superior to the black people. Essentially, in those actions, the lawmakers institutionalized inequality and legally reinforced the idea that black slaves were merely property. Unequal punishment, based on skin color, blatantly invalidated the Declaration of Independence’s promise of equality, creating resentment among the blacks that later erupted into violence. Additionally, the lawmakers imposed land ownership restrictions on former indentured servants, even the former white indentured servants. Only certain whites could engage in the most skilled occupations thus emphasizing and perpetuating economic barriers and class distinctions. The wealthy excluded the poorer whites and blacks, the subjugated classes, from participating in the voting process. The poor had little or no opportunity to express any opinions about the manner in which their moneyed superiors ruled them.<sup>[633]</sup>

Occasionally, when the elite allowed the poorer white male residents among them to cast a vote, it was

with restrictions. Poor white males could only express their opinions, through their votes, on local issues only, not significant national issues. Higher political offices were available only to the wealthy. Because the poor had inadequate choices, and an absence of political freedoms, the wealthy were at liberty to enact policies for the benefit of the wealthy, those who had the most to gain from the legislation.<sup>[634]</sup> Two major slave revolts occurred in New York in the first half of the eighteenth century, which resulted in the deaths of thirty-one slaves and four whites, who they either hanged or burned at the stake.<sup>[635]</sup> One year prior to America's revolt against British tyranny, Connecticut had over 5,000 enslaved Africans. By 1790, according to the federal census for Connecticut, the most prosperous merchants owned at least one slave and approximately 50% of the Christian ministers owned slaves.<sup>[636]</sup>

U.S. citizens like to envision their nation as equitable and just, supported by the rhetoric of the founding documents. However, in practice, by 1772, citizens adopted racial prejudice, which was deeply entrenched in the thirteen colonies. Even Benjamin Franklin, a proponent of Wheatley's Philadelphia-based antislavery society, placed Africans on the low rung of the humanity chain.<sup>[637]</sup> After the American Revolution and its purported battle against oppression, white bias against Africans had developed into a pervasive antagonistic ideology. Thomas Jefferson, in his *Notes on the State of Virginia*, declared in a lengthy statement regarding Africans that black inferiority – “in the endowment of both body and mind – might be an unchangeable law of nature.”<sup>[638]</sup>

Jefferson endorsed black colonization and privately applauded the American Colonization Society's objectives. Henry Clay, John Randolph, and Richard Bland Lee founded the American Colonization Society (The Society for the Colonization of Free People of Color of America) in 1816 as a primary vehicle for returning or deporting the blacks to Africa. The American Colonization Society (ACS) helped found the colony of Liberia in 1821-1822 as a place for freedmen. Paul Cuffee, a wealthy New England ship owner advocated the settlement of freed blacks in Africa. He financed two trips to Africa, in 1811 and 1815-6, specifically to Sierra Leone, then under British domination. Quakers and slave owners comprised most of the membership of the ACS. The slave owners were anxious to deport or repatriate the free blacks, people they perceived as a danger to their society.

Historians consistently idealize or even sanctify the elite founders, though many of them are quite flawed. Some people view those who point out these character inconsistencies as anti-American. Jefferson, in a letter to Jared Sparks, editor of the *North American Review* and a friend of the Colonization Society, suggested a legal policy of removing only the young Africans, thereby reducing the number of “breeders.”<sup>[639]</sup> In 1781, advocating mass relocation, Jefferson said, “The slave, when made free, might mix with, without staining the blood of his master...but when freed, he is to be removed beyond the reach of mixture.”<sup>[640]</sup> He felt that a growing black population might ignite “a revolution of the wheel of fortune” that would reverse the roles of master and slave. His colonization plan called for state laws that would abolish slavery outright. “I advance as a suspicion ...that the blacks are inferior to the whites in the endowments of both body and mind.” As planter and slave-owner, he thought the blacks to be “dull, tasteless, and anomalous.”<sup>[641]</sup> DNA evidence recently suggested a biological link between Jefferson and the black Hemings families with the implications that Jefferson fathered children with Sally Hemings, one of his slaves. The Thomas Jefferson Heritage Society argues that Randolph Jefferson, Thomas' brother, often drank and fraternized with the Monticello slaves and was most likely the father.<sup>[642]</sup>

Jefferson thought that failure to segregate the two races would generate a future race war. He fearfully envisioned the mongrelization of society wherein everyone would be a mulatto. He promoted emancipation followed by colonization and advocated deportation as a sure method of segregation. The South could liberate and purge the slaves at the same time. Because he believed in the superiority of the white race, Jefferson wanted to enact strong political measures to maintain the country exclusively for the

white race. Before he died in 1826, he recommended the West Indies as a prospective colony for the blacks. While he promoted manifest destiny, he thought it should exclude the black man.<sup>[643]</sup>

Benjamin Lundy, an abolitionist, supported colonization. Whites accepted freedom for the blacks as long as the government deported them soon afterwards. Many people in the South endorsed gradual emancipation. The relocation concept created an advantageous atmosphere for the sponsorship of abolition societies. During the 1820s, there was an upsurge in the number and membership of colonization and abolition societies. By 1832, there were 306 colonization societies, 70% of them in the southern slave states. By 1827, according to Lundy, there were 106 abolitionist societies with 5,150 members in slave states and twenty-four societies with 1,475 members in the Free states.<sup>[644]</sup>

An early eugenicist, Samuel George Morton, anatomy professor at the University of Pennsylvania, claimed that he could determine the intelligence of a specific race by their skull size. He claimed that a larger skull meant a larger brain and therefore greater intellectual capacity while a smaller skull was indicative of decreased capability. He collected hundreds of skulls from all over the world and then created his pseudo-scientific theories from his study of these skulls. He claimed that ancient Egyptians were not Africans but were white.<sup>[645]</sup> He wrote two books –*The Crania Americana, An Inquiry into the Distinctive Characteristics of the Aboriginal Race of America* (1839) and *Crania Aegyptiaca* (1844). Wealthy sponsors probably popularized, financed and promoted his work, which provided fuel for the elite's later eugenics program, forced sterilization and natural selection.

In the 1840s and 1850s, because of the government's Indian policies and the class-defining acceptance of the institution of slavery, politicians and citizens supported the concept of manifest destiny and the idea that white Americans were divinely destined to control the land mass between the Pacific and the Atlantic regardless of the non-white inhabitants and their longevity in the land. The elite exploited false racial theories, supported by their own scientific ideas, in order to seize resources from people they viewed as insignificant.<sup>[646]</sup> Many whites supported black emancipation, with the equal protection of the law, as long as whites were scientifically assured that the blacks were inferior in intelligence, physical stamina, and ambition. Thus, according to the elites, they certainly did not warrant political, cultural or social parity with the superior white races.<sup>[647]</sup>

Northern abolitionists, while endorsing black inferiority, acted altruistic and sympathetic over the plight of southern slaves, people they called “niggers,” a term that Lincoln regularly used. Northerners characterized the blacks as meek, submissive, and mentally backward. Harriet Beecher Stowe referred to them as “a race hitherto ignored by the associations of polite and refined society; an exotic race, whose ancestors, born beneath a tropic sun, brought with them, and perpetuated to their descendants, a character so essentially unlike the hard and dominant Angle-Saxon race.”<sup>[648]</sup>

Many Free Soilers (no blacks welcome) and Republicans adopted the biologically bogus, racial ideas promoted by the scientific community of the period because it served their objectives. Writers, physicians, scientists, the founding members of the Free Soil and Republican Parties claimed that the physical and mental inequities between the races were inherent and permanent. They also decided that opportunities and environmental circumstances were insignificant to the development of the races or their cultural standing.<sup>[649]</sup>

Democratic Congressman David Wilmot, a Freemason, proposed the Wilmot Proviso, dated August 8, 1846.<sup>[650]</sup> It provided for the colonization of the blacks outside of the country and the prohibition of slavery in land acquired because of the Mexican-American War (1846-1848). It was predicated on the idea that black people were inferior and unfit to socialize, intermarry or copulate with whites, a superior Caucasian race. Therefore, they needed to shunt them off into their own society to maintain the purity and exclusivity of the higher race. By deporting the so-called lower class people, the higher-class people

would be able to enjoy the abundant material resources of the land.<sup>[651]</sup>

The whole point of colonization was that the U.S. should be composed exclusively of white Anglo-Saxons. In 1858, Francis Blair wrote, “It is certainly the wish of every patriot that all within the limits of our Union should be homogeneous in race and of our own blood.” Wisconsin Senator James R. Doolittle said colonization would “keep our Anglo-Saxon institutions as well as our Anglo-Saxon blood pure and uncontaminated.” Other supporters argued that free blacks were “a grievous nuisance to every State of the Union” and that colonization “would relieve us from the curse of free blacks.”<sup>[652]</sup> People believed that white signified someone good while black suggested evil. The threat of the expansion of slavery, especially to the west, was really about racism rather than antagonism against the labor system. Northerners frequently exhibited a fanatical fear and deep-seated loathing of the blacks and wanted nothing to do with them.<sup>[653]</sup>

The Republican’s objectives suggest social structuring instead of social and political equality. Court historians portray false moralists as gallantly “battling against the immorality of Southern slavery” and as standing “upon principle and shunned expediency” before and during Lincoln’s War. The Republican Party’s operative phrase before and during that war was “Human freedom.” Now, the Republican Party uses the phrase “Fighting for our freedom” to rationalize America’s serialized warfare since then. Some historians argue that the Republicans “morally regenerated the nation through a successful battle with slavery” as if that preposterous notion of moral reform even begins to justify the needless slaughter of 622,000 people during the war. The Lincolnites purportedly based their crusade-style revolution upon some idealistic morality – wiping out the evildoers of yesteryear. Other writers claim that the slaughter was about the defense of Christianity, democracy and progress.<sup>[654]</sup>

Lincoln convened a special meeting, exclusively for black leaders, at the White House on August 14, 1862, for the primary purpose of promoting mass deportation and colonization. Lincoln began by saying, “you and we are different races.” He claimed that commingling was the basic cause of the war. Therefore, the government would facilitate the relocation of the black people. He told them that it would be “selfish” of them to remain in America where they were unwanted by the white population. Further, he said, blacks “should sacrifice” their “present comfort, for the purpose of being as grand...as the white people.” He told them they were not compelled to go to Liberia where many deportees had already perished due to lack of preparation and resources.<sup>[655]</sup> However, somewhere closer like Central America, would be more appropriate. Lincoln prevailed upon the blacks, including Frederick Douglass, to persuade their people to vacate the country.<sup>[656]</sup>

Lincoln told the group, “But for your race among us there would not be war, although many men engaged on either side do not care for you one way or the other.” He always maintained that the races “should be separate.” During the war, Congress allocated \$600,000 to transport and colonize the blacks. He suggested putting them to work cutting trees in Haiti or working in the mines in Panama. He also suggested that the government pay compensation to the slaveholders without any concern or compensation for the slaves themselves.<sup>[657]</sup>

## **Brown Brothers, Slave Traders and Money Laundering**

The slave-trading Brown family was one of the first to open the New England market to the very lucrative opium trade. First, they traded slaves, became bankers and then, through industrial piracy, ultimately went into the textile industry. Their nefarious success and profits motivated others to embark into the slave and opium trade including some of the following families: Whitney, Cabot, Lodge, Cushing, Perkins, Taft, Roosevelt, Bacon, Appleton and others, which formed the criminal foundation of New England wealth.<sup>[658]</sup>

Merchants exported pork, beef, cheese, board, shingles, barrel staves and other items to England in return

for coffee, salt, rice, flour, milled fabrics, pewter and stoneware, silk, guns and gunpowder and, especially from the Caribbean, sugar, molasses and rum. James Brown (1698-1739) was a seafaring entrepreneur residing in Providence, Rhode Island, originally founded on the principles of religious liberty and political democracy. Brown took his first of many trips to the sugar-producing island of Martinique in 1727, a French plantation colony, where he acquired molasses for his two stills. He converted the molasses into high-quality rum to sell in his retail store, along with other wares. Brown, a slave owner, also ran a slaughterhouse, very detestable facilities that generally fouled the air and polluted their surroundings. He also loaned money and charged usury. By 1750, Rhode Island, with the severest of slave laws, had become a slave-based economy very similar to the Southern plantation colonies.<sup>[659]</sup>

Rhode Island rum was a favorite on the African coast as early as 1725. In April and May of 1736, James Brown overhauled one of his ships, the *Mary*, in preparation for his brother's first arduous transatlantic trip to Africa's coast to buy slaves to re-sell to plantation owners in the Caribbean. Obadiah Brown left in May and arrived on the Guinea Coast sometime in August 1736. The slave trade created the massive fortunes of Newport, Rhode Island, home of twenty-two rum distilleries by 1769.<sup>[660]</sup> From 1709 to 1807, Rhode Island merchants subsidized hundreds of voyages to Africa's coast and returned with an estimated 106,544 slaves.<sup>[661]</sup> James and Obadiah Brown were some of the first slavers in Providence.<sup>[662]</sup>

Jews, always a part of the merchant class in every society, participated in the development of the slave trade. They were active in the slave trade in Newport, along with the Browns, before the Revolution, in what the traders referred to as the triangle trade. Jewish residents in the South purchased Africans to use in their homes and on their plantations. Some even made a substantial living from human trafficking. There were other Jews, opposed to slavery, who freed their slaves. Mordecai M. Noah promoted slavery in his New York newspapers while Moritz Pinner vehemently opposed slavery in his newspaper, the *Kansas Post*. Judah P. Benjamin and David Yulee, two Jewish senators, championed the slave system. Other Jews, Isidor Bush of St. Louis and Philip J. Joachimsen of New York, both active in politics, opposed slavery.<sup>[663]</sup>

James and his wife Hope Power Brown had at least four sons, initially all Baptists – Nicholas (1729), Joseph (1733), John (1736) and Moses Brown (1738), all born in Providence, Rhode Island, co-founded, funded and organized the 1771 construction of the religious-based College of Rhode Island.<sup>[664]</sup> “His Most Sacred Majesty George the Third, by the Grace of God, King of Great Britain” granted a charter to sixty individuals on the last Monday in February 1764. Many of those who received the charter held the British Title of Nobility, Esquire. According to the charter, in order to “govern a College or University within this Colony,” and for the “more effectual execution of this design,” the charter members were required to incorporate the college “into one body politic, to be known in the law, with the powers, privileges, and franchises necessary.”<sup>[665]</sup> John served as treasurer of Rhode Island College for twenty-one years. Administrators at the school changed the name to Brown University in 1804. John, Joseph, and Moses were allegedly all active members of the St. John's Lodge Number 1, Providence Free and Accepted Masons.<sup>[666]</sup>

James Brown was injured and subsequently died in 1839. His sons John, Nicholas, Joseph and Moses joined their Uncle Obadiah (1712-1762) in the merchant-trading business, sending ships to Europe, the Baltic, the Orient and South America. John started his own Triangle Trade business in 1774 and invested heavily in privateers between the 1760s and 1780s. To avoid duty charges he convinced Alexander Hamilton, to relax the collection of duties by the ten revenue cutters that the U.S. had in service along the eastern seaboard. Hamilton agreed in order to acquire the good will of the merchant traders.<sup>[667]</sup>

John had interests in seventy-five ships, a veritable monopoly, and made a fortune during the Revolutionary War selling over-priced gunpowder to Washington who he compelled to pay his exorbitant

prices. In 1775, John sold the U.S. Navy its first ship, the *USS Providence*. With income from the Hope Furnace and his lucrative military contracts with Congress, he turned the war into a profitable enterprise.<sup>[668]</sup> In 1787, he sent the *General Washington* to Canton, China, one of the first U.S. vessels to arrive there. Thus, Brown broke into the lucrative China trade.<sup>[669]</sup>

John Brown, a member of the Rhode Island assembly (1782-1784), used his privateering profits and political connections to open a bank, chartered on October 3, 1791. With other Providence merchants, he established the Providence Bank, later known as the Fleet Financial Group of New England and became its first president. He lobbied to have the bank chosen as a federal depository and to have banknotes, rather than specie, as acceptable payment for customs bonds, which would make the customhouse a subsidiary of merchant interests.<sup>[670]</sup> Ship owners created and invested in marine insurance companies to compensate for the unavoidable losses incurred.<sup>[671]</sup> In 1795, Brown purchased 210,000 acres of land in the New York Adirondacks.<sup>[672]</sup> He anticipated westward expansion so he purchased thousands of acres in Ohio after he had netted \$300,000 from his last cargo from Batavia on the *George Washington*, before selling the ship to the government.<sup>[673]</sup>

In August 1797, John Brown was the first American that the authorities tried for violations against the Slave Trade Act of 1794. His brother Moses, embraced Quakerism, gave up the slave business and had pressed the charges.<sup>[674]</sup> John escaped conviction and the people subsequently elected him to the U.S. House of Representatives (1799-1801). During one session, he asserted, “We want money, we want a navy, we ought therefore to use the means to obtain it...Why should we see Great Britain getting all the slave trade...why may not our country be enriched by that lucrative traffic?”<sup>[675]</sup> To halt enforcement of the Slave Trade Act, Brown and others threatened Samuel Bosworth, the Surveyor of the Port of Bristol. He disregarded their threats so they kidnapped him and deposited him two miles down the bay. This effectively halted the local enforcement of the Slave Trade Act (March 22, 1794).<sup>[676]</sup>

In 1800, both the House and the Senate, with their combined legislation, strengthened federal constraints on American involvement in the foreign slave trade. However, Representative John Brown of the prominent mercantile family, along with John Rutledge Jr. of South Carolina, argued against such restrictions. They both maintained that slave trading would continue in Africa and that Americans should not have to relinquish the profits accrued from such commerce.

Brown criticized the Quaker abolitionists, including his brother, Moses. John Brown claimed that people enslaved in Africa and transported to America were “much bettered their condition.” The proposed law did not affect the importation of slaves, already suspended by the South Carolina legislature. However, the state could reinstate importation as the Constitution protected the institution of slavery from federal proscription. Brown viewed the legislation as repressive because it hindered the continuing commerce, which was so important to the economy of his state. Rhode Island, though it forbade its citizens activity in the foreign slave trade, still depended on the enterprise for its economic benefits to the state.<sup>[677]</sup>

Though Moses became a Quaker and an abolitionist, he still benefitted from his family’s slave trading. While he opposed slavery, and even instituted the Anti-Slavery Society in Rhode Island, he remained a benefactor of his family businesses, which depended on slavery in order to operate. Additionally, he owned a cotton mill that relied on the cotton that the slaves in the South provided. While he eschewed slavery, he exploited the wage slaves, including children, who worked in his mill, sometimes as long as fourteen hours a day. Moses Brown was one of the lobbyists who fought for a law to out slavery. Congress passed this law on March 2, 1807.<sup>[678]</sup>

Slave profits contributed to the wealth of the New England bluebloods and bound like-minded families together through intermarriage and Masonic affiliations, ties that were often essential in getting employment in the shipbuilding and mariner industry. Like banking families, shipbuilding families

intermarried. Despite the Revolution to rid America of tyrannical British masters, the country still had an elite oligarchy bound together by secret handshakes and Masonic loyalties.<sup>[679]</sup>

The early Massachusetts Puritan culture was discriminatory, repressive, intolerant and brutal in their punishments of supposed undesirables. It was the country's Federalist foundation. The elite class had access to political power because of the enormous wealth that their trade engendered with which they enriched elite politicians. Under threat of embarrassing exposure, lawbreakers became lawmakers, that same sanctimonious assemblage that pioneered slave and opium trading, engaged in smuggling, tried to eliminate the Bill of Rights and introduced grueling factory labor for other people's children.<sup>[680]</sup>

Another Brown family, Alexander Brown and his sons, William, George, John, and James, owned their first investment bank in Baltimore, Maryland. The sons founded businesses elsewhere. William established William Brown and Company in Liverpool, England. John and James started Brown Brothers and Company in Philadelphia. Brown Shipley was the London Branch of the Brown Brothers and Company, which funded and carried 75% of the slave cotton from the American South over to British mill owners.<sup>[681]</sup> James opened a branch in New York City in 1825, a forerunner of Brown Brothers Harriman and Company.

## The Factory Slavery System

In 1789, Samuel Slater, the "father of the American factory system" brought British textile technology to the infant textile industry America. He built a cotton-spinning mill at Pawtucket, Rhode Island for Moses Brown, of the slave-trading Brown family, and another thirteen mills for himself from which he ultimately became very wealthy. Brown, a Quaker who later opposed his family's participation in the trading of human flesh, had a mill with seventy-two spindles and became the first flourishing U.S. factory. By 1810, there were about fifty cotton-yarn mills, many of them started because of the Embargo of 1807 that halted imports from Britain. By the end of the War of 1812, hundreds of factories were operating with about 130,000 spindles. By 1840, the number of spindles had reached 2,000,000. Southern slaves picked the cotton that energized New England's textile industry and ultimately the North's factory economy.<sup>[682]</sup>

Although Slater, the pioneer industrialist, was innovative enough to use textile technology and steam power, he refused to mechanize the weaving process. William Gilmore built a Scotch-style crank loom, which many other Rhode Island mills adopted.<sup>[683]</sup> Mill owners employed children as young as four.

Rhode Island manufacturers were about a generation behind other New England industrialists in implementing the corporate system. Brown University introduced a utilitarian curriculum and even initiated courses for the calico printing and jewelry industries. However, Rhode Island lagged behind in public education because of legislative interests, closely tied to the industrialists, opposed education because the textile manufacturers employed so many children who had no opportunity or time for education. Further, the industrialists in Rhode Island did not even provide safety codes for their adult workers. The industrialists, in addition to the legislators, were among the first Americans to abolish capital punishment and allow married women to assume control of their own property. However progressive they were in other issues, they retained child labor practices for as long as the employers enjoyed the profitability. Manufacturers opposed reform because they did not want to sacrifice their earnings. The same industrialists who voted against education and poor law taxes organized schools for their employees, donated land and facilities for workhouses. They also bequeathed money to universities and hospitals and funded the temperance movement.<sup>[684]</sup>

The following advice appeared in the *Textile World*, an employers' magazine, "It requires a great deal of diplomacy on the part of the spinning room overseer to bring all his help up to the same standards of efficiency due to the fact that most of them are children... . They have to be constantly watched or they

will go from bad to worse in order to make more time for play or rest. The overseer should never give up until he gets them to where they will give him a good day's work with a minimum of trouble.”<sup>[685]</sup>

Senator Charles S. Thomas said, “The real problem in America is not child labor, but child idleness. You cannot convince me that it hurts a child either physically or morally to make him work. Where one child, in my experience, has been injured from work, ten thousand have gone to the devil because of lack of occupation.”<sup>[686]</sup>

Moses Brown, despite being an avid opponent of slavery, proclaimed the virtues of child employment in the textile factories, with the new water-powered spinning technology. This recently perfected machinery created “opportunities” in numerous Providence textile workshops. Child laborers from the age of eight to fourteen worked twelve to sixteen hour shifts in gloomy workshops, which supposedly represented the labor savings of the entire nation. This egregious, but apparently tolerable practice was prevalent throughout the northeast for almost 100 years.<sup>[687]</sup>

The industrial revolution had its drawbacks, particularly because the legislation associated with this era permitted manufacturers to enjoy complete freedom to indiscriminately dispose of toxic, noxious wastes. The waste products from tanneries and slaughterhouses often became stagnant, stinking pools. Factory workers often resided in cramped, unsanitary tenements after working long hours in hazardous conditions. Worker's tenements were located in congested areas that lacked adequate drainage facilities and access to pure water. Consequently, there were recurrent outbreaks of diseases that affected infant mortality and overall general health. Local and state governments did not regulate industrial nuisances until 1843. Even when they did step in, the legislation favored the industrialists rather than the employees. By 1850, authorities finally instituted zoning for slaughterhouses and other such industries. The legislatures apparently saw no problem with the high incidence of child labor or by the unhealthy factory conditions that they toiled in and therefore took no action until after 1850. However, legislation was notoriously ineffective.<sup>[688]</sup>

By 1860, New England had 472 cotton mills, adjacent to the rivers and streams throughout the New England region. The town of Thompson, Connecticut had seven mills within a nine-square-mile area.<sup>[689]</sup> The Lowell Mills, in Lowell, Massachusetts, founded by Francis Cabot Lowell, a member of the Boston Lowell family, hired factory girls, some of whom were as young as ten years old. The mill owner promoted the Lowell System, which combined massive scale mechanization with a majority female workforce. Mill officials persuaded girls from the rural farm areas to come work in the mill for a “better life.” The female laborers, received lower wages than men would have demanded, slaved from five in the morning until seven in the evening, about seventy-three hours a week. About eighty females worked in each workroom with two male overseers. The rooms were hot, unhealthy and noisy. The mill provided year-round housing in barracks adjacent to the mills. Each accommodated about twenty-five people with six females sharing one small bedroom. Curfew was 10 P.M. The quarters were half-ventilated, overcrowded and without privacy and comfort. The factory girls worked and ate together, rarely leaving their barracks or workrooms.

Immigrants and others who slaved in the central Massachusetts and Connecticut mills used the phrase “factory slavery” and referred to their superintendent as a “slave driver.” Monopoly manufacturing generated an aristocracy that exploited the poor. Workers and their children labored for as many as sixteen to eighteen hours every day, like slaves, just for a bare subsistence wage. The confinement and oppression existing in Yankee factories was often worse than southern slavery. When an exhausted, longtime northern worker became incapable, his/her employer relegated him/her to the streets to starve. “Owners” in the South traditionally gave slaves lighter tasks or no tasks at all. Chattel slavery, under the guise of employment, existed in the New England woolen mills and elsewhere.<sup>[690]</sup>

The Hollingworth family, English immigrants, worked in the woolen mills of Massachusetts and Connecticut. Joseph Hollingworth wrote, “Manufacturing (sic) breeds lords and Aristocrats, Poor men and slaves.” He was rather hopeless when envisioning his future and the future of his children. He thought, “I cannot bear the idea, that I, or my children (if I should ever have any) should be shut up 16 or 18 hours every day all our life time like Slaves and that too for a bare subsistence.” He referred to another immigrant family, the Haighs, who fled from one job because of “the Confinement, Slavery, and oppression of the Yankee Factorys (sic).” Many families had emigrated from England for a better life only to find the same kinds of conditions in America that they had escaped in England. Their letters certainly are revealing in that they compared their situation in the mills with chattel slavery.<sup>[691]</sup>

Children worked the same long hours that adults labored which often totaled sixteen hours a day including the one hour for meals, which workers ate in the factory. This was the situation during the 1830s and 1840s. Many people lost their farms, possibly because of the economic crash in 1837, and they were compelled to work in the urban areas. Some children working in the textile mills worked as many as thirteen hours a day. Frequently, the bosses manipulated the clocks and bells in order to keep the children working even longer. Even children born into slavery did not work half as many hours as the factory slaves. Nor did they do as much work as the white children enslaved in the factories in “free New England.” Ultimately, people became so outraged over the child labor policies that the Massachusetts legislature enacted a law in 1842 to prohibit children under the age of twelve from working more than ten hours a day. In Connecticut, the authorities passed a law limiting the workday to ten hours for children under fourteen.<sup>[692]</sup>

In England, in some factories, approximately one-fourth to one-fifth of the child laborers were crippled, deformed, or permanently injured because of the dangerous toil and even from the brutal abuse suffered at the hands of the overseers.<sup>[693]</sup> Their families had abandoned some of the factory children. Often, professing Christians readily exploited the factory children, the most persecuted yet some of the most industrious in English society.<sup>[694]</sup> Other Christians spoke out against the monsters and their abuse of innocent factory children.

Mill workers recognized that, while they toiled under gruesome conditions, their employers enjoyed life’s luxuries purchased by the sweat of others. Under the factory slave system, moralistic owners acquired significant economic benefits to which they felt entitled without the social stigma of slave ownership. Many of them regularly attended local abolitionist meetings where they talked about the inhumanities of slavery. Their corporate policies were frequently more oppressive than the South’s “black codes.” Southern slave owners had a financial investment to protect. However, thousands of vulnerable white females labored away their youth and health in the New England mills. They were expendable, replaceable, and were constantly at the mercy of their demanding overseers.<sup>[695]</sup>

The misery of black chattel slavery and white factory slavery is disturbing and still exists in various parts of the world, like China and other Asian countries where multinational corporations, many based in the U.S., extract labor from the impoverished residents. Under the factory slave system, the opportunity to improve one’s condition does not exist. Employers compel oppressed workers, then and now, to relinquish the results of their labor. Women commonly compare sexual discrimination with slavery. There was no hope for advancement or independence. Factory overseers controlled their charges through threats of impoverishment. Quite simply, the employer technically owned each worker. Refusal to obey is grounds for dismissal. For most, there are no other options – work or starve.<sup>[696]</sup>

## **Out of the Congo**

On April 12, 1799, Deacon Phineas Pratt, a goldsmith and clockmaker, residing in the Potapoug Quarter,

in Connecticut, patented a hand-powered machine that facilitated the mass production of ivory items such as ivory combs, small boxes and other items, which started the commercialization of ivory and the world trade in that commodity. Previously only the wealthy could afford the handcrafted ivory pieces. Now, the middle-class could also own handcrafted ivory pieces resulting in an accelerated consumption of ivory. Ivoryton and Deep River, Connecticut became home to numerous businesses and ivory cutting shops.<sup>[697]</sup> At least 75% of the thousands of tons of ivory that came out of Zanzibar ended up in Connecticut, America's ivory manufacturing center for almost a century.<sup>[698]</sup> I "inherited" some small ivory pieces and until recently did not consider the cost, both human and animal, behind the family artifacts.

Deep River, home to early slavers and abolitionists, was also home to numerous ivory bleach houses, constructed to transform elephant tusks into piano keys, billiard balls and popular Victorian ornaments. Human slavery ended in the U.S. following Lincoln's War. To be more accurate, debt slavery replaced slavery after the war. However, the traders, who still used hundreds of slaves elsewhere, were not about to relinquish a productive labor system in Africa. Slaves performed all of the backbreaking work involved in the lucrative flow of ivory. Each year, tens of thousands of Americans purchased pianos with beautiful ivory keys, cool and smooth to the touch. Manufacturers made billiard balls exclusively from the tusks of female elephants due to their unique composition, which produced a well-balanced ball. Elephants live in close matriarchal family groups of related females. Sadly, the traders valued the tusks of the older female elephants that, in addition to their tusks, also have the inherent experience and wisdom to know exactly how and where to find food and water for the benefit of the entire herd. Therefore, slaughtering older elephants threatens the stability and the lives of the entire herd, especially the vulnerable young.<sup>[699]</sup>

King Leopold II, Belgium's king became intrigued with the profitable possibilities of the Congo after he heard about Henry Morton Stanley's expedition across central Africa, a hot humid climate, local resistance, the rainforest, swamps, and the accompanying diseases like malaria and sleeping sickness. The Congo was not an inviting environment for Europeans. Yet, Leopold II, seeking opportunities for foreign colonization and for profitable resource seizure, was interested in the largely unexplored and unclaimed Congo. Leopold, a ruthless tyrant, had previously been unable to secure any exploitable territory in Asia and therefore hoped to expand his interests into Africa. He was anxious to determine the quantity and value of the resources he could exploit in Africa. In 1876, he initiated secret explorations under the auspices of the International Association for the Exploration and Civilization of Africa, purportedly a scientific and humanitarian organization. Between 1878 and 1884, Leopold worked through his Comité d'Etudes du Haut Congo, which developed into the International Association of the Congo. He paid Stanley to visit the Congo basin to establish links and make treaties with prominent chiefs. Stanley returned to Belgium in 1884 with over 400 treaties ceding the rights of sovereignty for most of the Congo basin to Leopold's allegedly humanitarian International Association.<sup>[700]</sup>

Leopold's duplicitous strategy enabled him to gain recognition and the European endorsement for the creation of the Congo Free State, about 900,000 square miles, at the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885. Leopold, with his treaties, totally controlled the Congo Free State. The charter embodied four principles, freedom of trade and navigation by all (including Africans); neutrality in the event of war; the abolition of the slave trade; and a general improvement in the "moral and material conditions of the indigenous population's." Leopold thoroughly and deliberately disregarded these principles.<sup>[701]</sup>

Leopold opened the fertile Congo to European entrepreneurs who purchased exploitation rights for rubber, ivory and other resources. Leopold, for granting monopoly rights, got 50% of the profits. In some areas, Leopold demanded annual production and labor quotas from the indigenous population. White managers, like Emile Francqui, brutalized the Congolese tribes within an area of almost 1,000,000 square

miles. Leopold perpetuated a genocidal plunder of the Congo for over two decades. Through his agents, he brutalized its people and ultimately decimated the population by as many as 10,000,000 people, while deceptively portraying himself as a generous humanitarian, an example his associates adopted for use in their own plunder operations.

Without a census of the area, it is impossible to determine the population loss in the Congo during that period. In 1904, British diplomat Roger Casement determined that Leopold's thugs slaughtered at least 3,000,000 people during his twenty-year reign. Investigative reporter and author Peter Forbath thought the total was more like 5,000,000 deaths. Adam Hochschild, American author and journalist, estimated at least 10,000,000.<sup>[702]</sup>

Ivory hunting flourished in the poorly governed areas of Africa in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. King Leopold systematically stripped the resources from the Congo basin. Beginning in the 1890s, he was intent on seizing every bit of ivory available. Adam Hochschild wrote, "Congo state officials and their African auxiliaries swept through the country on ivory raids, shooting elephants, buying tusks from villagers for a pittance, or simply confiscating them. The indigenous people of the Congo have been hunting elephants for centuries, but now they are forbidden to sell or deliver ivory to anyone other than an agent of Leopold."<sup>[703]</sup>

American consuls, apparently without any consideration for the environment and the matriarchal elephant herds, helped to secure the lucrative, unregulated ivory trade that threatened to destroy the majority of the great majestic animals in the Sub-Saharan that people brutally sacrificed just to supply the ivory market. Walter Dalrymple Maitland Bell, considered a highly successful elephant hunter (predator), recklessly slaughtered more than 1,000 elephants before he retired in the 1930s. He purchased a large estate and an eighty-foot yacht with the money he made slaughtering elephants. After an individual stalked and shot an elephant, it took long tedious hours for seized African slaves, using hand axes to desecrate the animal and chop out the two tusks. Then, slaves carried the heavy tusks to Zanzibar's infamous ivory market.<sup>[704]</sup>

The most lustrous, softest, easiest-to-carve ivory is from the two front incisors of the African elephant, once plentiful in eastern and central Africa. One elephant tusk typically weighs as much as eighty pounds or more. Transporting the tusks from the killing grounds to the coastal trading areas presented a huge challenge because a rail system was nonexistent so the traders relied on slave labor. Because of the climate, the tsetse fly was pervasive in the area. The fly transmits a deadly parasitic disease, called trypanosomiasis, which eliminated the use of highly susceptible pack animals to transport the tusks. Therefore, the traders used people in the place of pack animals. David Shayt, a Smithsonian curator, estimated that between 1884 and 1911, the slaves transported approximately 10,000,000 pounds of ivory to the African coast, which traders ultimately shipped into America's ports. The New York market price ranged from \$1.80 to \$4.00 per pound, which amounted to a minimum of \$18 million, which totals about \$310 million in today's currency.<sup>[705]</sup>

The ivory trade, merely to satisfy men's vanity destroyed the lives of Africans and lasted for approximately eighty years. Slavers and traders exploited the African tribal people who suffered tremendously as slavers seized the strongest members of African families and then torched their villages as they carried away their captives, enslaved and shackled together. They seized the strongest Africans in the villages, usually the subsistence farmers, while those who remained behind frequently faced starvation. The traders forced their captives to carry heavy tusks upon their backs for as many as 1,000 miles, from the continent's interior all the way to the coast. Many slaves perished en route. The English missionary, Alfred J. Swann who lived by Lake Tanganyika, Africa's great lake, the second most voluminous freshwater lake in the world, reported what he saw in the ivory caravans in Africa in the 1880s, "... Feet and shoulders were a mass of open sores, made more painful by the swarms of flies,

which followed the march and lived on the flowing blood. They presented a moving picture of utter misery...they were covered with the scars of the chikote, a leather whip.”<sup>[706]</sup> Swann later wrote the book, *Fighting the Slave Hunters in Central Africa: A Record of Twenty-Six Years of Travel and Adventure Round the Great Lakes*, published in 1910.

Dr. David Livingstone came upon an ivory caravan in southeastern Africa in 1858, and reported, “...A long line of manacled men, women and children, came wending their way round the hill and into the valley, on the side of which the village stood. The black drivers, armed with muskets and bedecked with various articles of finery, marched jauntily in the front, middle, and rear of the line; some of them blowing exultant notes out of long horns.” The guards fled when they saw Livingstone’s group who began cutting the women and children free. It was harder with the men who had their necks riveted by an iron rod across their throats.<sup>[707]</sup>

The traders had chained together between forty and fifty slaves in a line to make the lengthy trip from the interior with the burdensome ivory. Those who survived the trip were little more than emaciated skeletons.<sup>[708]</sup> Joseph Conrad, in *Heart of Darkness*, described the ivory porters that he witnessed in King Leopold’s État Indépendent du Congo. He wrote, “Black shapes crouched, lay, sat between the trees leaning against the trunks, clinging to the earth, half coming out, half effaced with the dim light, in all the attitudes of pain, abandonment and despair...They were dying very slowly – it was very clear. They were not enemies, they were not criminals, they were nothing earthly now – nothing but black shadows of disease and starvation, lying confusedly in the greenish gloom.”<sup>[709]</sup>

Africa may have been the only place ivory tusks ever served utilitarian purposes. The residents used the tusks for animal stockades, doorposts and roof beams, and carved them into the tools of daily life, such as mortars and pestles. Stanley also saw tusks surrounding the gravesites of chieftains. The people used the elephant for food and some tribal cultures thought the elephant had a special spiritual dimension that they represented in their art. The African relied on the elephant for reasons other than for decorative purposes. People in the West interpreted the African’s use of the elephant as hard evidence of their ignorance. Africans, like other indigenous peoples, with respect for natural resources, did not carelessly decimate the elephant as the profit-driven American traders did.

In the 1870s, people discovered diamonds in South Africa, a country where the black people were economically independent of the white settlers. They farmed and raised herds of cattle and even supplied the miners with meat. Then, miners associated with Kimberley discovered a large deposit of diamonds in the dry plateau east of the Orange River. The Africans worked in the mines just to obtain the money to buy guns and other items. When they had earned sufficient money, then they quit and returned to their farms. In July 1876, the mine owners attempted to cut wages by 50% and 4,000 black workers left the mines and returned to their farms. Since the Africans used the bartering system, money was not essential to their existence. Therefore, De Beers had no control over the black workers.<sup>[710]</sup>

The government, in collaboration with De Beers, imposed a tax on the Africans that was only payable in cash. This forced Africans to leave their farms to work in the mines in order to pay the tax.<sup>[711]</sup> Corporations used this tactic in other countries, like America, following what people refer to as the Civil War, where corporate interests attempted to further strip people of their independence and transform them into debt slaves. Cecil Rhodes, financed by the Rothschilds, developed the diamond and gold monopoly in South Africa under the name of De Beers Mining Company, founded in 1880 and its successor, De Beers Consolidated Mines, founded in 1888.

Both the white and black workers saw nothing wrong with retaining and selling some of the diamonds that they found. Mine owners naturally opposed “their” stones going into an “illegal” distribution system they did not establish. Consequently, in 1883, per government sanction, they began physically searching their

employees on a daily basis. The company forced the black workers, but not the white workers, to wear “mealie flour sacks” which had no pockets. In 1884, the white workers refused to undergo the daily searches and went on strike. Black workers, sympathizing with the whites, also went on strike. The company forcibly ended the strike and in the process killed six white workers. Afterwards, the whites did not have to endure the searches. This justifiably caused resentment among the black workers who were still subject to the dehumanizing daily searches.<sup>[712]</sup>

In 1882, Cecil Rhodes proposed that De Beers should house all the black workers, but not white, in barracks when they were not working. In July 1886, according to Janine Roberts, De Beers confined 1,500 of their black workers into barracks. By 1889, they had all 10,000 black workers confined in what resembled prisons, a place where their families could not join them. Thereafter, to save money and maximize their labor force, De Beers used convicts as part of its labor force. Between 1884 and 1932, De Beers, with the obvious cooperation of the state, compelled thousands of convicts to work in their mines and paid minimum wages to the state. Many of those convicts were people who had traveled to the mines seeking employment but they had failed to secure a pass from the government to travel. In 1889, De Beers proclaimed, “No native shall work or be allowed to work in any mine, whether in open or underground mining, excepting under the responsible charge of some particular white man as his master or ‘baas.’” De Beers, using a divide-and-create-animosity tactic, had institutionalized Apartheid.<sup>[713]</sup>

In 1886, prospectors discovered gold on the Witwatersrand. In 1902, Sir Ernest Oppenheimer (1880-1957), from Germany, moved to South Africa to join his brothers on a diamond farm. He began as a diamond sorter and ultimately grew to own and operate the world’s biggest and most influential diamond mining, along with a distribution company. Oppenheimer controlled De Beers and in 1917, founded the Anglo American Corporation of South Africa to exploit the gold deposits east of Johannesburg.<sup>[714]</sup> In 1927, Oppenheimer wrested control of Cecil Rhodes’ De Beers business. He consolidated the company’s global monopoly over the world’s diamond industry and controlled this empire until his retirement.

Like De Beers in the Congo, Oppenheimer, under the Consolidated Diamond Mines (CDM) operated in a very similar manner in South West Africa (currently Namibia). He imported cheap labor from Botswana. Janine Roberts, according to her research, states that by 1923, “over half the labor force of 5,000 consisted of outside recruits from northern Botswana who suffered a high mortality rate...with scurvy or tuberculosis.” Others perished from “dehydration and exhaustion” because Oppenheimer supervisors compelled them to search the desert sands for diamonds.<sup>[715]</sup>

Oppenheimer established a company town, Oranjemund that provided living quarters for all contracted workers – married white workers and “single sex hostels” for black workers who could not bring their families to the area. Oppenheimer owned all the facilities in the town – the retail stores, the theaters, and the clubs – from all of which they barred the black workers. They even segregated the post office and black workers had to go to the back of the supermarket to have someone wait on them. White workers received 767 Rand and black workers received 61 Rand a month for the same work. In 1972, workers struck in mass against the conditions at the mine, their prison-like housing, severe food shortages, and the contract system that had changed their homeland into “a slave labor market.” The Ovamba compounds, the living quarters, had only one entrance, sharp shards of glass embedded in the top of the walls surrounding the compound, and concrete beds that crippled the residents.<sup>[716]</sup>

The miners suffered from poor or insufficient food, low salaries, and an absence of privacy in the hostels that housed ten men in a prison-like chamber where their “guards” controlled the electric lighting so they could not stay up at night. The workers had no dining halls and, because of the lavatory conditions, people had to defecate in public. Oppenheimer imposed these conditions in both his diamond and gold mines. While Ernest Oppenheimer claims to have converted to Christianity, there is insufficient evidence, given

the conditions he initially instituted, to sustain such a claim. In March 1976, according to an internal memo, workers complained, “We live like animals in the compounds without our wives...The life we lead here is worse than slavery or the life of a beast of burden.”<sup>[717]</sup>

In 1947, diamond dealers and their supporters created the World Federation of Diamond Bourses (an exchange, especially one in a European city) in order to provide common policies for trading rough and polished diamonds and precious stones among its twenty-nine members. Their headquarters are in Antwerp. The World Federation of Diamond Bourses (WFDB) is composed of independent diamond bourses in major cutting centers such as Tel Aviv, Antwerp, Johannesburg and other cities across the U.S., Europe and Asia.

Some of the largest deposits of gold, diamond, copper and platinum are in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, formerly Zaire, home to approximately forty-four million people. Despite the tremendous natural wealth of the country, the average annual income is usually less than \$250. There is rampant corruption and administrative mismanagement of the nation’s resources. Because of the poverty, the typical life expectancy is less than fifty years. Foreign powers and corporations continue to exploit the resources, amass huge fortunes, while the people are forced to labor for those powers. Mobutu Sese Seko (1930-1997), the former president, from 1965 to 1997, also accumulated a massive fortune, about \$5 billion, by developing favorable relationships with the foreign corporations and acquiescing to their demands while they exploited the mineral and human resources. He appreciated the philosophy of Niccolo Machiavelli.

The country is largely undeveloped, with a critical lack of infrastructure, and a few opportunistic foreigners extract the minerals in order to acquire immediate personal wealth. Because they have no interest in the country, they do not invest in the modernization of the nation, as it would be incompatible with their interests. These people sell the gold or diamonds, usually for Federal Reserve notes, the international currency.<sup>[718]</sup>

In 1958, Patrice Lumumba (1925-1961) helped found the broad-based Mouvement National Congolais (MNC), which embraced Pan-Africanist beliefs. In October 1959, Belgian officials arrested Lumumba for purportedly provoking an anti-colonial riot in Stanleyville, the capital and center of the secessionist independent state of the Republic of Congo. During that riot, the police killed thirty people. The MNC, despite Lumumba’s incarceration for six months, won a majority of the votes in the elections in December 1959. Belgian officials scheduled a conference in Brussels to discuss the future of the Congo. Delegates who were to attend the conference from the Congo expressed outrage over Lumumba’s incarceration and demanded his immediate release. They released him and he attended the conference, January 18-27, 1960. Conference attendees decided to grant Congolese independence and the country could hold national elections from May 11-25, 1960 with their official independence beginning on June 30, 1960. The Congolese people elected 34-year-old Lumumba, announced on June 23, 1960, as the Prime Minister and Joseph Kasa-Vubu as the president of the Republic of the Congo. Lumumba and the MNC could now form a government.

The people of the Congo celebrated Independence Day on June 30 in a ceremony attended by many dignitaries including King Baudouin, of Belgium (1951-1993) and the foreign press. Patrice Lumumba, the new Prime Minister, gave an independence speech even though officials excluded him from the event program. King Baudouin, in his speech praised the progress the country had made under colonialism. He referred to the “genius” of his great-granduncle Leopold II, while briefly mentioning the atrocities they implemented during the Congo Free State. The King said, “Don’t compromise the future with hasty reforms, and don’t replace the structures that Belgium hands over to you until you are sure you can do better.” Lumumba responded by telling the audience that the people had fought hard for the Congo’s independence. Belgium did not magnanimously grant it but resisted it.

Lumumba said, “For this independence of the Congo, even as it is celebrated today with Belgium, a friendly country with whom we deal as equal to equal, no Congolese worthy of the name will ever be able to forget that it was by fighting that it has been won, a day-to-day fight, an ardent and idealistic fight, a fight in which we were spared neither privation nor suffering, and for which we gave our strength and our blood. We are proud of this struggle, of tears, of fire, and of blood, to the depths of our being, for it was a noble and just struggle, and indispensable to put an end to the humiliating slavery which was imposed upon us by force.”<sup>[719]</sup>

According to Dr. D’Lynn Waldron, a foreign correspondent covering Patrice Lumumba, the people of the Congo loved Lumumba. Waldron also states, “Belgium and the banking and mining interests were arranging for the coming Independence to disintegrate into chaos so they could take back Katanga with its gold, uranium and copper, and the Kasai with its industrial diamonds, while dumping the unprofitable remainder of the Congo.” His opponents, corporate interests supported by big government, claimed that Lumumba was a Communist in order to vilify him and justify their actions.<sup>[720]</sup> Just ten weeks later, opponents, probably supported and trained by the CIA, deposed the Lumumba government during a coup that people refer to as the Congo Crisis. Subsequently, his enemies imprisoned him and the CIA in collaboration with Belgium murdered him.<sup>[721]</sup>

Currently, 1,200 Congolese die each day because of war and its consequences, disease and malnutrition. By 1996, even before war overwhelmed the Congo, the country was one of the world’s biggest producers of cobalt, copper, coltan and industrial diamonds. However, more than 75% of the population lives on less than a dollar a day. A quarter of the population, 15,000,000 people, must subsist on one meager meal per day. Deprivation and poverty should not exist in a resource-rich country. Those elite and their self-serving local agents and enforcers who actually control the country’s resources have created another third-world country.

# THE FOUNDERS, ECONOMICS AND WARFARE

## Doctrine of Discovery

In 1452, Pope Nicholas V issued the papal bull *Romanus Pontifex* that allowed Portugal to claim, conquer and ultimately occupy land in West Africa. On June 21, 1481, Pope Sixtus IV issued the papal bull *Aeterni regis* in order to confirm the Treaty of Alcáçovas (September 4, 1479) which placed the Canary Islands under the dominion of Queen Isabella I of Castile and gave control of the Madeira (discovered in 1419), the Azores (1427) and the Cape Verde islands (1456) to Portugal. In 1493, Pope Alexander VI, with his papal bull *Inter caetera*, extended the same privileges to Spain following Christopher Columbus' first voyage. Because of competition between the two seafaring nations of Portugal and Spain, officials of those countries signed the Treaty of Tordesillas, drawn up on June 7, 1494 and later ratified by each nation.

European nations based their colonial claims on the idea that “the Pope was Christ’s representative in matters spiritual and temporal.” Therefore, European explorers justified their claims to land in the Western hemisphere on that premise. They also claimed to believe that every action they took was “justified and validated” within “the broad moral framework of Christian religion.” The Pope granted conditional privileges to territory to “Christian sovereigns” in the Western hemisphere if they compelled the natives to accept Christianity. Although the Protestant countries rejected the Pope’s authority, they retained the practice of seizing land based on their Discovery claims and the “pagan” status of the natives. Apparently, the claimants sporadically attempted to introduce “Christian religious teachings” to the people while in the process of subduing them.<sup>[722]</sup>

Revolutions occurring in Europe affected territorial claims in North America. Presumably, victorious nations acquired the colonial possessions of the losing nations, along with exclusive right to establish political discourse with the natives who inhabited the territory, now under the control of another nation. The European colonial powers viewed the opportunistic Doctrine of Discovery as the right of the “discovering country” to secure “title over the lands described in the process of exploration.” An explorer could claim title, usually with a flag, to all the land through which a river flowed, if he landed on the North American coast, at the mouth of that river for his sovereign (country). That nation was then responsible to provide settlers and governing officials at that location as evidence of the nation’s presence provided the natives did not expel them. Other nations were supposed to respect the discovering nation’s claim.<sup>[723]</sup>

After the American Revolution and the Treaty of Paris (September 3, 1783) Americans assumed they had militarily taken possession of Britain’s discovery claims – the Atlantic seaboard, parts of the Ohio Valley, and a portion of the Great Lakes shorelines. The Indians, between 1783 and 1815, made treaties with the United States, Britain, and with Spain who still claimed land in the southeastern United States. The Indians had international status yet they were now living in territory that the United States claimed.<sup>[724]</sup>

Law Professor Robert J. Miller defines the ten elements of Discovery in his book *Native America, Discovered and Conquered*. Those elements are

- (1) First discovery, without occupation but a claim of title (incomplete)
- (2) Actual occupancy and current possession, which achieves complete title
- (3) Preemption or European title means that the “discovering European country” gains the exclusive right to purchase (seize) land from the natives

- (4) Indian title meant that the natives had lost “full property rights and ownership of their lands” but they could still occupy and use the land
- (5) Tribal limited sovereignty and commercial rights restricted the indigenous population from trading with anyone except the Euro-American government that claimed first discovery
- (6) Contiguity, which gave preferential right of discovery and settlement to any area in close proximity to an area already claimed; if American explorers laid claim at the mouth of a river, the claim included all land that the river flowed through
- (7) Terra nullius means that the land is vacant, unoccupied or improperly used if non-Europeans or Americans were not living on the land
- (8) Christianity or religion allegedly played a part in the Doctrine of Discovery and Manifest Destiny, which restricted the rights of non-Christian people to own land or enjoy sovereignty
- (9) Civilization, the term the Euro-Americans used in conjunction with Discovery in that they believed God had guided them to bring civilization to the natives
- (10) Conquest could mean a military victory through a “just war” or a way of subjugating the indigenous population by altering their culture and subtly seizing their resources through the legal process.<sup>[725]</sup>

Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr received an equal number of electoral votes in the presidential election of 1800. Therefore, the House of Representatives held a special session to determine who would be president. After thirty hours of debate, the representatives chose Jefferson as president (1801-1809) and Aaron Burr as vice president. Chief Justice John Marshall administered the oath of office to Thomas Jefferson on March 4, 1801. In his first inaugural address, Jefferson said, “A rising nation, spread over a wide and fruitful land, traversing all the seas with the rich productions of their industry, engaged in commerce with nations who feel power and forget right, advancing rapidly to destinies beyond the reach of mortal eye... possessing a chosen country, with room enough for our descendants to the thousandth and thousandth generation;...”<sup>[726]</sup>



One of the most respected and renowned of the Founding Fathers, Thomas Jefferson, portrayed by establishment historians as a peaceful, scientific man of letters, knowledgeably applied many of the Discovery guidelines during his lengthy legal and political career. He devised the Indian Removal Policies, which involved transporting all of the eastern tribes west of the Mississippi. Andrew Jackson merely implemented those removal policies in subsequent decades. People, if they even know and understand the government’s “final solution” for the Native American population, typically blame Jackson for the policy’s grievous long-term effects.<sup>[727]</sup>

Spain transferred the Louisiana Territory to France under the preliminary Third Treaty of San Ildefonso (October 1, 1800) and finalized the transfer by the Treaty of Aranjuez (March 18, 1801). Jefferson sent King’s College-educated Robert R. Livingston (1746-1813), considered one of the founders, to Paris as the U.S. Minister to France (1801-1804). Livingston, a Freemason since 1784, was the first Grand Master of the Grand Lodge of New York, a position he held until 1801 when he left for France. James Monroe

joined Livingston in Paris to negotiate the Louisiana Purchase in 1802 following Jefferson's discovery that Spain had transferred the area to France. They concluded the sale of 828,800 square miles for \$11,250,000 on July 4, 1803. Livingston remarked, "We have lived long but this is the noblest work of our whole lives...The United States take(s) rank today among the first powers of the world."<sup>[728]</sup>

In early 1803, Thomas Jefferson made inquiries among his associates, both in and out of government, requesting suggestions about "his western enterprise." In February, he wrote to three leading Philadelphia scientists, Caspar Wistar, Dr. Benjamin Smith Barton, and Dr. Benjamin Rush to have them prepare some opinions regarding botany, zoology, and Indian history.<sup>[729]</sup> Undoubtedly, the doctors told President Jefferson about the smallpox issues the Indians had suffered through over the decades. Amazingly, smallpox never seemed to affect the whites, even the whites who handled the smallpox-laden blankets designated for their Indian victims.

In mid-April 1803, Jefferson began drafting some instructions to share with specific members of his cabinet who shared his views about the future expansion of the country, especially Treasury Secretary Albert Gallatin. In 1836, Gallatin after collecting and organizing a large amount of Indian data published his *A Synopsis of the Indian Tribes within the United States East of the Rocky Mountains, and in the British and Russian Possessions in North America*, compendia of Native American language and one of the finest systematic collections of Native American ethnology and linguistics of the time. He included an Appendix dedicated to grammatical notices and vocabularies from dozens of tribes. He also included native words and terms from about two dozen tribes.<sup>[730]</sup>

Attorney General Levi Lincoln Sr. (1749-1820), in his response to Jefferson's query, greatly influenced the president's decisions regarding the Indians and the relationship of the U.S. government to the many tribes.<sup>[731]</sup> Lincoln, an attorney, was a state legislator in Massachusetts, a participant in Massachusetts' state constitutional convention, a Massachusetts Governor, a U.S. Representative and then Attorney General under Jefferson (1801-1805). Allegedly, he was a distant relative of Abraham Lincoln according to a book originally published in 1909.<sup>[732]</sup>

On April 17, 1803, Lincoln wrote a letter to Jefferson implying that there was insufficient information regarding the Indians in Jefferson's initial draft of instructions. Lincoln urged Jefferson to incorporate some questions regarding Indian religious practices, native legal tradition, concepts regarding property ownership, and native medical practices. Jefferson was already aware of smallpox inoculation. However, Lincoln first suggested that Lewis take cowpox substance along on the voyage to administer to the Indians. Apparently, he felt, because of political expediency, that the Indians needed protection against smallpox if they were going to have contact with the whites. The U.S. government could not develop a trade network with sick or dying natives who would invariably blame the explorers for disseminating smallpox.<sup>[733]</sup>

Attorney General Levi Lincoln's remarks increased Jefferson's attention on the Indians. In May 1803, Dr. Benjamin Rush provided Lewis an incredibly thorough list of ethnographic questions. On February 4, 1774, Rush had given a lengthy presentation in front of the American Philosophical Society entitled *Natural History of Medicine among the Indians of North America*.<sup>[734]</sup> Rush's discourse in 1774 covered his ideas on every possible physical aspect of the native's life including diet, hygiene, sexual performance and pregnancy. Rush prepared the same kind of comprehensive record for the expedition, divided into three parts. His curiosity extended well beyond any medical concerns. He recommended the explorers pose twenty separate questions to the Indians. He wanted the explorers to document the Indian's eating, sleeping, bathing habits and the native diseases they suffered and their remedies. He also wanted to know about their marital practices, how long they breast-fed their children and their longevity. Rush even asked Lewis to determine the pulse rates of the Indians in the morning, noon, and night and before and after they ate.<sup>[735]</sup>

Because of his belief in the Doctrine of Discovery, in late 1803, President Jefferson directed Meriwether Lewis (1774-1809), his personal aide, to lead the Corps of Discovery in a scientific and military expedition to investigate the newly purchased Louisiana Purchase. Jefferson said, "...the object of your mission is to explore the Missouri river, and such principal streams of it, as, by its course and communication with the waters of the Pacific Ocean, whether the Columbia, Oregon, Colorado or any other river, may offer the most direct and practicable water communication across this continent for the purposes of commerce..."<sup>[736]</sup>

On May 14, 1804, William Clark (1770-1838) and the Corps of Discovery left Camp River Dubois, at the confluence of the Mississippi and Missouri Rivers, north of St. Louis. Lewis joined them in St. Charles, Missouri. The expedition was comprised of more than forty-five people, including twenty-seven soldiers, a French-Indian interpreter, and York, Clark's Black slave. Others, who would remain with the group until they arrived in Mandan country, included six soldiers and several French boatmen.<sup>[737]</sup>

Lewis and Clark left on their overland expedition (1804–1806) to the Pacific coast to "discover" and stake a claim at the mouth of the Columbia River and build Fort Clatsop, as evidence of a permanent presence, in order to claim the entire Oregon Country. Jefferson directed U.S. Army Captain Lewis and Clark to establish a commercial and political relationship with the tribes. Traditionally, historians have focused on the scientific aspects of the expedition rather than on the legal ramifications and Jefferson's interests in an expedition of North America.<sup>[738]</sup>

In 1807, President Thomas Jefferson wrote to his Secretary of War Henry Dearborn (1801-1809) and instructed him that if the Indians opposed the U.S. expansion into their territories, the U.S. military would attack with such ferocity that the Indians would be "exterminated, or driven beyond the Mississippi." Jefferson based this policy on the example of the Powhatans and Pequots because, "in war, they will kill some of us; we shall destroy all of them." In 1812, Jefferson claimed that Euro Americans were "obliged" to eradicate every Indian that they encountered "with the beasts of the forests into the Stony Mountains." In 1813, he defined the U.S. government's objectives of pursuing all Indians currently residing east of the Mississippi "to extermination, or to drive them to new seats beyond our reach, or preferably to "extirpate them from the earth."<sup>[739]</sup>

In December 1806, Senator William Plumer stated in his diary that President Jefferson had indicated his interest in "some enterprising mercantile Americans" beginning commercial operations in the Pacific Northwest. Jefferson, by 1806, wanted American merchants to establish permanent facilities on the Columbia River in order to assert possession and occupancy as part of the Discovery claim. John Jacob Astor received federal approval to build a fur trading post, Astoria, at the mouth of the Columbia River, which an expedition of his men completed in April 1811. The Astoria fur trading post and Astor's activities in the Pacific Northwest facilitated Jefferson's Doctrine of Discovery objectives. In May 1812, Jefferson wrote to John Jacob Astor and reiterated that the Pacific Northwest already belonged to the United States. Jefferson viewed Astoria as "a great public acquisition (and) the commencement of a settlement on that point of the Western coast of America."<sup>[740]</sup>

With the new territory acquisition, which included U.S. sovereignty, Jefferson intended to establish full commercial rights over the Indian nations residing in the Louisiana Territory, an area that doubled the size of the country. Consequently, he wrote to Lewis proposing that he work towards developing trade relations between the Indians and the U.S. in addition to proclaiming authority over them. He wrote, "It will now be proper you should inform those through whose country you will pass, or whom you may meet, that their late fathers the Spaniards have agreed to withdraw...that they have surrendered to us all their subjects...that henceforth we become their fathers and friends." Historians focus on the initial purpose of the expedition rather than on the belated objective. Jefferson had issued his original

instructions in a letter dated June 20, 1803, prior to the purchase of the territory and before the government could use the Discovery claim. Before the purchase, Jefferson requested passports for the expedition from England, France and Spain. He assured these governments that the trip was peaceful and exclusively for scientific purposes.<sup>[741]</sup>

In accordance with Jefferson's latest instructions, Lewis prepared a 2,500-word presentation specifically for the expedition's initial tribal encounter on August 3-4, 1804. In their expedition, Lewis and Clark met in counsel with over fifty tribes during which they explained the process of Discovery and the government's status over the people they now called "children." Further, Lewis and Clark informed the Indians that they were now American subjects evidenced by the flags and medals that they just happened to take with them, even before the Louisiana Purchase. They distributed these items, which now, after the land acquisition, increased in political significance and initiated the Doctrine of Discovery. These "gifts" bound the unwary Indians to the authority of the U.S. The explorers also inquired what commodities the tribes might need or want and then made arrangements for delivery of those goods. These "gifts" were conditional – upon their acceptance of whatever counsel, advice or commandment happened to come from the federal government. Lewis also told the tribes to end their warfare with each other and to allow American traders to come into the territory. Lewis issued an implied military warning to the natives that Jefferson "could destroy you and your nation as the fire destroys and consumes the grass of the plains."<sup>[742]</sup>

Lewis and Clark accentuated the nation's sovereign authority and military powers over the natives by having the troops associated with the expedition demonstrate some maneuvers using weapons then unknown to the natives. They used these tactics to intimidate and instill fear into the natives and to exhibit the utter senselessness of the natives ever resisting the strength of the U.S. government. Jefferson sent Lewis and Clark among the tribes to impose the Doctrine of Discovery and to establish commercial authority, a license to exploit the resources in Indian lands. Further objectives included making the natives dependent upon over-priced federal commodities and creating indebtedness so the natives would be compelled to relinquish their lands to satisfy their financial obligations.<sup>[743]</sup>

In 1823, in the U.S. Supreme Court, lawyers argued the case of Thomas Johnson and Graham's Lessee versus William M'Intosh (pronounced McIntosh), February 15–19, 1823, during the period that people refer to as the Marshall Court (1801-1835). On February 28, 1823, John Marshall delivered the court's opinion, based on the European and papal Doctrine of Discovery, which established the foundations of the doctrine of aboriginal title in the United States, the basis for all federal and state cases related to Indian land title for almost 200 years. Europeans and later Americans explored, exploited and colonized North and South America through the international jurisdiction of the Doctrine of Discovery.<sup>[744]</sup>

In Johnson v. M'Intosh, non-Indian plaintiffs obtained title to land due to grants from Native Americans without the consent of the federal government. Indian tribes made these grants in 1773 and 1775, before the Revolutionary War, before the initial Trade and Intercourse Act (1790) which, after the fact, made those grants illegal. The U.S. government sanctioned a competing land grant to M'Intosh, one of the defendants. In Johnson v. M'Intosh, Chief Justice John Marshall ruled, "The person who purchases lands from the Indians, within their territory, incorporates himself with them, so far as respects the property purchased; holds their title under their protection, and subject to their laws. If they annul the grant, we know of no tribunal (in the United States" which can revise or set aside the proceeding."<sup>[745]</sup> Marshall's ruling designated that the first "Christian people" who discovered lands inhabited by "heathens" has the ultimate control and title to those lands.<sup>[746]</sup>

Chief Justice Marshall claimed that the U.S. had preeminent sovereignty over the territory by virtue of the "Doctrine of Discovery" and its appendage, the "Rights of Conquest." However, the Doctrine only conveyed rights to the various Crowns of Europe and not to republics that had rebelled and violated the

Laws of Nations by seceding from their Crowns. Additionally, the law recognized preeminent sovereignty as resting with indigenous nations rather than the “discovering powers.” The power that claimed ownership by virtue of “discovery” was a dominant right versus the European states. A nation or “sphere of influence” cannot acquire, through purchase or agreement, land within the discovered area from its rightful owners. Authorities could only apply “Rights of Conquest” when it was required that people fought a “Just War.” This could only occur if (1) the indigenous population participated in malicious attacks upon the discoverers, (2) if the Indians rejected the opportunity to trade with the discoverers, or (3) if the natives declined to have Christian missionaries to move among them. The discoverers never met any of these conditions.<sup>[747]</sup>

According to the historical records, the Indians nations never initiated a war against the United States. The U.S. government started every incident of “open warfare,” predicated on a “documentable invasion” of Indian lands by settlers, miners or others who came onto Indian lands. Indian participation in any war was always of a defensive nature.<sup>[748]</sup>

Though Marshall’s ruling still met the “the legalities of the situation,” the problematic issue of “discovery” versus “conquest” still confronted Marshall.<sup>[749]</sup>

He simply fictionalized discovery into conquest. Marshall admitted that it was an “unjust but expedient solution.”<sup>[750]</sup> Marshall wrote, “However extravagant the pretensions of converting the discovery of an inhabited country into conquest may appear; if the principle has been asserted in the first instance, and afterwards sustained; if a country has been acquired and held under it; if the property of the great mass of the community originates in it, it becomes the law of the land, and cannot be questioned...However this restriction may be opposed to natural right, and to the usages of civilized nations, yet, if it be indispensable to that system under which the country has been settled, and be adapted to the actual condition of the two people, it may, perhaps, be supported by reason, and certainly cannot be rejected by courts of justice.”<sup>[751]</sup>

In his esteemed opinion, Marshall did not completely disregard the property rights of the original inhabitants; he merely “impaired” them but it was out of necessity. Admittedly, the Indians were “the rightful occupants of the soil, with legal, as well as just claim to retain possession of it and to use it according to their discretion; but their rights to complete sovereignty, as independent nations, were necessarily diminished, and their power to dispose of the soil at their own will to whomsoever they pleased was denied by the original fundamental principle, that discovery gave exclusive title to those who made it.”<sup>[752]</sup>

Vine Deloria, Jr., and Clifford Lytle wrote, “While paying lip service to the European notion of discovery and continued Indian autonomy, Marshall reasoned that conquest gave the white settlers ownership and title to Indian lands... Johnson v. M’Intosh created a landlord-tenant relationship between the government and the Indian tribes. The federal government, as the ultimate landlord, not only possessed the power to terminate the ‘tenancy’ of its Indian occupants but also could materially affect the lives of Indians through its control and regulation of land use ...This notion... constituted the basis on which the court in the Cherokee Nation cases developed its theory of guardianship over Indian affairs.”<sup>[753]</sup>

*The Encyclopedia of Native American Legal Tradition* provides a description of this vile doctrine. “The Doctrine of Discovery held that the native peoples of the New World were childish beings in need of the ‘benefits’ of European civilization, a point of view that also formed English colonial policy in North America.” American officials did not consult the Native American peoples whose land was at issue under the Doctrine of Discovery. “Instead, the doctrine was formulated to describe Native American ownership (usually defined as ‘aboriginal title’) within the framework of European and European-American legal systems. The doctrine had nothing to do with ways in which Native Americans perceived land use.”<sup>[754]</sup>

“The Doctrine of Discovery has been used to justify the taking of land from Native Americans by degrading their rights of ownership to ‘aboriginal title,’ which may be rescinded in a ‘just’ war, that is, one that the aggressor did not provoke. This interpretation of the Doctrine of Discovery became a major basis of Spanish and English and then of U.S. Indian policy. Under this policy, the Bureau of Indian Affairs (created March 11, 1824), was said to hold the Indians’ land in ‘trust,’ with the Indians as ‘wards,’ a legal rationale used to foster policies meant to change the Indians’ social lives, legal systems, and economic practices to conform to mainstream American standards through such policies as allotment (see Allotment Act ), as well as the maintenance of boarding schools and other institutions meant, as some ‘reformers’ phrased it late in the century, to ‘Kill the Indian and save the man.’”<sup>[755]</sup>

## The Pilgrim Fathers

A group of people referred to as the Pilgrims founded the Plymouth Colony. The group was composed of about 40% adults and 56% of family groupings. Pastor John Robinson, church elder William Brewster, and William Bradford led this congregation of religious separatists. In 1607, after severe religious persecution at the hands of Tobias Matthew, Archbishop of York, in Nottinghamshire, England, the congregation left England and immigrated to the Netherlands. In June 1619, to avoid having their children influenced by the Dutch culture, the Congregation requested and received a land patent from the London Virginia Company, a corporation, which permitted them to settle at the mouth of the Hudson River. They obtained financing from the Merchant Adventurers, bought provisions and on September 6, 1620, they set sail in the *Mayflower* from Plymouth, England carrying 102 settlers and arrived at Provincetown Harbor on November 11. The colonists wrote the Mayflower Compact (corporate charter), signed November 11, 1620, the first governing document of Plymouth Colony. The Pilgrims then sailed to Plymouth harbor, arriving there on December 21, 1620. They used the *Mayflower* as their headquarters while they constructed their houses. The *Mayflower* set sail back to England in the spring of 1621.

John Winthrop received a royal charter for the Massachusetts Bay Company from King Charles I and subsequently led a group of English Puritans to the New World in 1630. The settlers soon discovered, after their arrival that it took an incredible amount of labor to construct a community in a virgin wilderness. Winthrop, the governor of the Massachusetts Bay Colony (1639-1648), in a letter to his brother-in-law, Emanuel Downing apparently complained about these strenuous, demanding challenges. In his response, Downing suggested that the settlers simply initiate a “just war” against the indigenous people in order to seize a commodity, presumably the native people themselves. Then the colonists could trade the natives in the West Indies for something esteemed to be of more value than a non-white “savage.” Downing conceptualized one of the fundamentals of warfare – resource seizure – simply take from others what you are unwilling to expend the efforts to earn for yourself.<sup>[756]</sup>

A smallpox epidemic afflicted the virgin native population while the English managed to escape the dreaded disease, possibly from natural immunity, due to its prevalence in England. Governor William Bradford of the Massachusetts Bay Colony reported, “By the marvelous goodness and providence of God, not one of the English was so much as sick or in the least measure tainted with this disease.” The Puritans viewed this scourge and destruction of the Indians as an unmistakable sign of “divine approval” of whatever they did or decided to do to the natives in the future. In 1634, Bradford wrote that the Puritan settlers now numbered about 4,000 people, all in “remarkably good health” because of the “Lord’s special providence.” He said, referring to the Indians, “for the natives, they are near all dead of the smallpox so as the Lord hath cleared out title to what we possess.”<sup>[757]</sup>

The British did not hesitate to kill Indian women and children. Their objective, according to John Mason was that “the Lord was pleased to smite our Enemies in the hinder Parts, and to give us their Land for an Inheritance.” Another biblical passage said, “Thou shalt save alive nothing that breatheth...but thou shalt

utterly destroy them.” Mason used religion to justify the Pequot War, which they initiated in July of 1636, two years after many New England natives died of smallpox. John Winthrop mandated the slaughter of Narragansett Indians after the colonists found the body of John Oldham, apparently killed by the Indians on Block Island. Though Oldham was an unpopular outcast, in retaliation, the white settlers murdered over a dozen Indians who they discovered close to the crime scene without regard whether they were responsible. The colonists were not seeking justice but rather just wanted to kill Indians despite the promise of the Narragansett’s chief to dispense punishment to Oldham’s murderers. He sent 200 warriors to Block Island to search for the culprits.<sup>[758]</sup>

Rather than allow the chief to handle the issue, Puritan leaders demanded that armed militiamen attack the Block Island Indians, kill all the men and seize the women and children who would bring a tidy sum in the West Indies slave markets. Horrified, the Indians scattered because they were hopelessly incapable of fighting such a military force. Therefore, the militia destroyed the deserted villages and burned the cornfields. On their way back from Block Island, the troops initiated a confrontation with some Pequot Indians who had nothing to do with Oldham’s death. The Pequots quickly perceived the soldier’s intentions and fled to the forest to avoid a battle. Again, the troops went on a vicious rampage, looting and burning the Indians’ villages and cornfields. After the militia left for Boston, the Pequots engaged in some retaliatory raids, including an attack on Fort Saybrook. These events were a death knell for the local Indians. From then on, the English targeted the Pequot Indians, including the women and children.<sup>[759]</sup>

The Indian nations seldom embraced the economic and political aspirations exhibited by the British invaders who waged war to achieve their ambitions. The Indians engaged in warfare as a retaliation of a personal insult or inter-tribal aggression. They preferred negotiation to avoid war or accepted the payment of tributes to the victors to satisfy any injury. The tribes did not attempt to dominate each other, a trait generally connected to European-style warfare and conquest. Furthermore, Indian warriors could elect not to fight in a particular battle. If enough warriors decided not to fight, the battle ended. Indians viewed warfare in a very personal way whereas American and British soldiers see warfare in the abstract, an ideological compulsion that often leads to “indiscriminate, casual, unceremonious killing.”<sup>[760]</sup>

The Connecticut General Court declared war against the Pequots. John Mason, commander of the Connecticut troops, led the military in an assault on the main Pequot village. The Indians realized that Mason planned to massacre the whole tribe and attempted to withdraw. Mason and his men attacked the Indians under the cover of darkness. The British invaded the Indian encampment and killed everyone and everything that moved. There were few warriors in the village at the time. Mason and his men torched the wigwams. It was, according to the witnesses, like a fiery oven; it was a ghastly sight as most of the sleeping Indians died in the flames. Mason and his men used their swords on those who tried to escape. Many of the young soldiers had never seen battle before. The sight of so many people bleeding, gasping and dying on the ground overwhelmed them. Yet, the youthful murderers, obedient to their superiors, continued the work of death. Of course, it was not actually battle because the Indians were helpless and unarmed.<sup>[761]</sup>

Governor Bradford described what the British saw – the Indians were frying in the fire and there were streams of blood and the stench of burning flesh filled the air. The British viewed the victory as a sweet sacrifice and they praised God who they felt had helped them to “enclose their enemies in their hands and give them so speedy a victory over so proud and insulting an enemy.” Cotton Mather celebrated the event years later in his *Magnalia Christi Americana*, “In a little more than one hour, five or six hundred of these barbarians were dismissed from a world that was burdened with them.” Mason counted the dead Pequot Indians who totaled six or seven hundred. The British took seven captives and seven escaped. Mason said, “It was the just Judgment of God.”<sup>[762]</sup>

## The Virginia Company

In June 1606, King James I chartered The London Company, also called the Charter of the Virginia Company of London, for a group of London entrepreneurs as a joint stock corporation charged with establishing an English settlement in the Chesapeake region of North America. On December 20, 1606, Captain Christopher Newport, a former privateer, with 104 settlers sailed from London in three ships, the *Discovery*, the *Susan Constant* and the *Godspeed*, with instructions to settle Virginia, find gold, and seek a water route to the Orient. They arrived on Jamestown Island on the banks of the James River, sixty miles from the mouth of the Chesapeake Bay on May 14, 1607. The corporation was empowered with the right to appoint the Council of Virginia, the Governor and other officials. The corporation also had the responsibility of providing settlers, supplies, and ships for the venture. Thomas West, 3rd Baron De La Warr, a veteran of the English campaigns against the Irish, arrived at Jamestown on June 10, 1610 with fresh supplies and men. De La Warr became governor for life. Initially, people viewed the prospects favorably until the mortality rate increased and the prospects for profit decreased. Given the challenges, the king revoked the charter in 1624, after what the settlers refer to as the Indian Massacre of 1622. The Virginia Company then became a Crown colony.

The Algonquin natives, despite rhetoric to the contrary, lived peacefully, were generous, trustworthy, and practiced egalitarianism. These characteristics were conspicuously absent from English social relations of the time. A small minority of British observers recognized and appreciated the native people of Virginia. The Indians rarely assimilated with the colonists while there were a large number of whites who chose to live with the Indians, much to the chagrin of the colonial governors. In 1612, the deputy-governor of Virginia, Sir Thomas Dale had some of those who preferred to live among the Indians, hunted down and executed. He had some of them hung, others he had shot and some he had burned at the stake. The Indians enjoyed close family relationships between parents and children; the parents suffered incredible grief when the whites separated them from their children, a strategy that the British unhesitatingly exploited. Captain John Smith, former mercenary and a member of the governing Council of the Colony (September 1608 to August 1609), and Sir Ralph Lane regularly kidnapped Indian children from their villages and held them hostage.<sup>[763]</sup>

In Roanoke, local government policies mandated that when an Englishman accused an Indian of stealing an item and not returning it, the British would attack the entire Indian village. They would torch the community and the corn-bearing fields surrounding the town. In the seventeenth century, this disproportionate response to any minor infraction allegedly committed by an Indian was typical for the British. In 1610, in Jamestown, Governor De la Warr demanded that chief Powhatan (proper name was Wahunsonacock), father of Pocahontas and leader of the Powhatan tribe, return some runaway Englishmen that the chief was sheltering – probably so the governor could have them executed for preferring to live among a more civilized group of people.<sup>[764]</sup> Chief Powhatan's tribe was part of a confederacy of tribes speaking the Algonquin languages. Other tribes included the Pamunkeys, Chickahominies, Naunsemonds, Rappahannocks, Paspaheghs and several smaller tribes, composed the "Powhatan Empire," of perhaps 100,000 or more people. The settlers relegated each of these tribes to destitution, homelessness, starvation and disease.<sup>[765]</sup>

Chief Powhatan refused to relinquish the men to a certain death. In retaliation, the governor directed George Percy to launch a military campaign against Wahunsonacock and his people. Percy, the brother of the Earl of Northumberland and second in command to the governor, marched against the village and immediately killed fifteen to sixteen men. Other Indians fled but the soldiers managed to capture the queen, her children and an Indian brave. Percy ordered one of his soldiers to decapitate the brave. He then had his men torch the village and the crops adjacent to the town. After destroying the one town, Percy

directed his men to lay waste to another Indian town. He initially allowed the queen and her children to live and placed them on one of his boats. His troops complained so he held a meeting and they all concluded that they would throw the children overboard and shoot them in the head. When Percy returned to Jamestown, the governor was displeased that the troops had allowed the queen to live. They were going to burn her alive but Percy decided to be merciful and just stab her to death.<sup>[766]</sup>

Understandably, the relations between the English and the Indians diminished into hostility. However, the Indians attempted to make peace by taking food to the English settlements because the British seemed incapable of growing enough to feed themselves. Instead of gratitude, the Englishmen captured the Indians, accused them of being spies and executed them. Other times, the English invited the Indians to their settlements under the pretense of making peace. The British then killed the trusting, unwary Indians. The whites offered peace treaties, to put the Indians off guard, always with the intentions of breaking them. Despite the fact that the British benefitted from the agricultural efforts of the Indians, they regularly destroyed Indian crops. Thereafter, the British were determined to either enslave all of the indigenous population or exterminate them because the British rationalized, the Indians tried to destroy them. Additionally, as Edward Waterhouse joyfully indicated, the British wanted all of the Indian lands – retaliatory warfare was merely the ruse to seize the cultivated, fertile land, their initial objective.<sup>[767]</sup>

In 1614, Chief Wahunsonacock had agreed to peace after the English captured his daughter Pocahontas. However, more colonists arrived and seemed determined to destroy the Indians and their culture. In 1622, the non-Indian population of Virginia totaled less than 4,000 whites in addition to a few African slaves living on scattered plantations. On March 21, 1622, a native informer alerted the English that the Indians were planning a massacre the following day, giving the whites in remote settlements sufficient time to retreat to Jamestown.<sup>[768]</sup>

Finally, the Indians retaliated in the Powhatan Uprising of March 22, 1622 and killed 347 settlers during warfare that lasted about an hour. Waterhouse, a secretary for the Virginia Company, stated in the Declaration of the State of the Colony that the “Relation of the Barbarous Massacre” took the lives of seventy-seven people at Martin’s Hundred, a 20,000-acre private plantation founded by investors headed by London attorney Richard Martin. However, Waterhouse overestimated the number slain as the Indians captured several women who Waterhouse presumed were dead. Fifty-eight colonists actually died at the plantation.<sup>[769]</sup>

The settlers, as a defense measure, concentrated themselves closer to Jamestown and reduced the number of settlements from eighty small settlements to six larger ones. The settlers appealed The London Company in London that then petitioned the King, both ignored the request for help and left the colonists to their own resources. As summer approached, the settlers concocted a clever plan to deceive the Indians. They extended peace and forgiveness to the Indians and promised them permission to return to their villages and cornfields so they could begin planting. They accepted the offer of peace. However, in the late summer, when the corn was almost ready to harvest, the settlers waged a surprise attack on all the Indian villages. They burned them all down and destroyed their fields leaving the surviving Indians to probable starvation in the coming winter.<sup>[770]</sup> During one raid against the Indians, the English destroyed enough corn to feed 4,000 people for a year. The British preferred to starve the non-combatant natives. By winter’s end, 1623, as many Indians died in a year as had perished in the last fifteen years.<sup>[771]</sup>

In 1625, one battle, at Pamunkey, at least a thousand native warriors confronted the English but Governor Francis Wyatt defeated them. In 1628, the settlers tried to persuade the Indians, with promises that they would forgive and forget, allow the natives to resume life in their own villages and cultivate their fields without fear of aggression from the settlers. However, the governor admitted to the settlers that he had massacred the natives as they had done in the late summer of 1622. However, the Indians had learned not

to trust the white man and continued their warfare, despite the fact that the whites had almost completely exterminated them. The colony and the company suffered financially and were close to ruin. In 1684, the Crown revoked the colony's charter.<sup>[772]</sup>

By 1624, after two years of war, the colony's population decreased to 1,258 whites and twenty-two Africans. Before war began, there had been sixteen years of peaceful existence. Over a thousand stockholders had invested £200,000 in the development of the colony. Between 1622 and 1634, the settlers and the native population engaged in guerilla warfare.<sup>[773]</sup>

Colonists killed hundreds of Indians in repeated military campaigns, mass poisonings, and the whites sent dogs to hunt them down, destroyed their canoes and fishing equipment, and torched their homes and fields. The Indians attempted to make peace and when the British accepted a proposal, the Indians let their guard down and the British would launch more attacks. The English wanted to exterminate the Indians and destroy them from the face of the earth. In 1624, the British entered an Indian village and slaughtered 800 unarmed Indian men, women, and children. The Indians also perished because of the diseases so prevalent among the British. By 1650, the Powhatan nation was almost non-existent.<sup>[774]</sup>

In 1684, the year the King revoked the charter, he offered peace to the surviving Indians who then resumed their activities – farming and caring for their families under Chief Opechancanough, second brother of Powhatan.<sup>[775]</sup> The British captured Chief Wahunsonacock's successor Opechancanough, an elderly nearly blind man, and incarcerated him in Jamestown where, within two weeks, a British soldier shot him in the back, killing him. In April 1607, when 107 British settlers arrived, there were about 14,000 Powhatan Indians, a huge decrease in the population from the previous few decades before. The French, English, and Spanish brought diseases and just outright slaughtered the natives. Prior to their arrival, experts estimate that the Indian population was over 100,000. By the end of the seventeenth century, there were over 60,000 English men and women residing in Virginia while the Powhatan population had shrunk to 600 or less. The British had exterminated over 95% of the Powhatan nation since 1607, a population that the foreign invaders had already decimated by about 75%. This drastic reduction of just the Powhatan nation of Virginia is typical of the other indigenous tribes in the east. In 1697, Lieutenant Governor Andros of Virginia estimated that the number of Indian warriors in the colony was about 360 with a total Indian population of less than 1500. The colonists had slaughtered over 80% of the colony's natives during the previous fifty years.<sup>[776]</sup>

Virginia Governor William Berkeley, appointed by King Charles I of England proposed a dual program of genocide and enslavement. People deliberated over whether to kill the remaining Indians or capture and enslave them. Governor Berkeley wanted to slaughter all the adult males and sell all of the women and children in order to pay for the war of extermination, as there was a sufficient number of female and child slaves “to defray the whole cost.”<sup>[777]</sup>

## **The Great American Republican Experiment, 1774-1812**

### **The Albany Plan, an Early Model**

The British government asked colonial representatives to meet in Albany, New York, to develop a treaty with the natives and plan the defense of the colonies against France. Additionally, the assembly adopted a plan developed by Benjamin Franklin for government of the colonies by a central executive and a council of delegates. England rejected this plan but the Albany Plan became a useful guide in the years before the Revolutionary War.

The Albany Congress, or Albany Conference, refers to a meeting of some individuals from seven of the thirteen colonies – Connecticut, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island. They met daily in Albany, New York (June 19 to July 11, 1754) to develop ideas on how to enhance their relationships with the Indian tribes, including designing a better common defensive strategy against the French. The delegate's main objective included negotiating a treaty with the Mohawks. This allegedly was the first time that citizens of this many colonies had met together. They spent the majority of their time debating Benjamin Franklin's *Albany Plan of Union*,<sup>[778]</sup> which would have formulated a unified colonial entity.

The *Albany Plan of Union* was primarily the work of Benjamin Franklin and avidly supported by Thomas Hutchinson, the British royal governor of colonial Massachusetts (1771-1774) and a prominent Loyalist in the years before the American Revolution. Representatives from the Mohawks and other native groups attended the meetings.

## Opposition to British Oppression

### Deputies to Represent the People

In July 1774, Thomas Jefferson (1743-1826) wrote *A Summary View of the Rights of British America: Set Forth in Some Resolutions Intended for the Inspection of the Present Delegates of the People of Virginia, Now in Convention* in which he mentions the position of a deputy and refers to the deputies assembling in a "General Congress with the deputies from the other states of British America." He drafted this document as a set of instructions for the Virginia delegates to the first Continental Congress.

In describing the abuses of the King, Jefferson wrote, "Resolved, that it be an instruction to the said *deputies*, when assembled in general congress with the *deputies* from the other states of British America, to propose to the said congress that an humble and dutiful address be presented to his majesty, begging leave to lay before him, as chief magistrate of the British empire, the united complaints of his majesty's subjects in America; complaints which are excited by many unwarrantable encroachments and usurpations, attempted to be made by the legislature of one part of the empire, upon those rights which God and the laws have given equally and independently to all."<sup>[779]</sup>

Further Jefferson wrote, "But your majesty, or your governors, have carried this power beyond every limit known, or provided for, by the laws: After dissolving one house of representatives, they have refused to call another, so that, for a great length of time, the legislature provided by the laws has been out of existence. From the nature of things, every society must at all times possess within itself the sovereign powers of legislation. The feelings of human nature revolt against the supposition of a state so situated as that it may not in any emergency provide against dangers which perhaps threaten immediate ruin. While those bodies are in existence to whom the people have delegated the powers of legislation, they alone possess and may exercise those powers; but when they are dissolved by the lopping off one or more of their branches, the power reverts to the people, who may exercise it to unlimited extent, either assembling together in person, sending deputies, or in any other way they may think proper. We forbear to trace consequences further; the dangers are conspicuous with which this practice is replete."<sup>[780]</sup>

Thomas Jefferson wrote his Summary before the Declaration of Independence and defined the justifications for the Boston Tea Party (December 16, 1773) and the imminent American Revolution. Meanwhile, in 1774, Benjamin Franklin (1706–1790) was in London attempting to persuade his friends in Parliament to evaluate the potential problems in America over Britain's excessive taxation. The colonists opposed the Stamp Act, the Declaratory Act, and the Intolerable Acts, all imposed on an unwilling citizenry. The Stamp Act of 1765, put in force on November 1, 1765, taxed printed materials like newspapers, legal documents, and even dice and playing cards. The Declaratory Act, effective March 18,

1766, repealed the Stamp Act but affirmed the right of British Parliament to make laws that would bind the colonists “in all cases whatsoever.”<sup>[781]</sup> The British Parliament imposed several punitive measures, The Intolerable Acts, in response to the Boston Tea Party. They intended to reverse colonial resistance to parliamentary authority, which began with opposition to the Stamp Act. The British closed the Port of Boston, gave the British-appointed governor of Massachusetts total control of town meetings and ordered the colonists to house British soldiers in the homes of private citizens.

Citizens elected Thomas Jefferson as a delegate to the second Continental Congress on March 27, 1775. Jefferson, a Virginia delegate, quickly established himself in the Continental Congress with the publication of his paper entitled *A Summary View of the Rights of British America* (brief title).

## The Great American Republican Experiment

In 1774, individuals devised what some historians refer to as The Great American Republican Experiment, a plan of independent government in the hands of the people rather than in the hands of the King or his representatives. They patterned their experiment after the Republican Statute of Rome: OF the People, BY the People, FOR the People, TO the People, and FROM the People, guided and governed only by the “Devine Providence over all Worldly Men!” The Unanimous Declaration of the United Colonies, also known as The Declaration of Independence (July 4, 1776) clarifies the Natural Republican State. Individuals wrote a third of the colonial documents in Latin and is reliant upon a specific understanding of the rules of grammar, a “functional literacy” and the period under which the individual wrote the document. To understand the ramifications of a document, one must recognize that the original Latin was gender-based. It is male-singular or feminine-plural gender sensitive.<sup>[782]</sup>

Between 1774 and 1812, the American colonists established a Republican Form and Style of government. The word Form refers to the logistical framework, such as a constitution whereas the word Style refers to the “operation” of that government – how the government applies the written law. People refer to this process as The Flow of Government. A government that is “Republican in Form and Style” is incompatible with the candid world’s top down democracies and republics “because the flow of government is variable (as in alternating current), or “plenary” at each Deputy level, each of which serves as a “check and balance” against each other at the Deputy level.” A Deputy’s position, unlike the lifetime members in the current legislative branch, is a temporary arrangement. The People function as the ultimate “check” against their Deputies, during an election and through a jury of peers.<sup>[783]</sup>

Individuals must understand some major tenants of Statute law, corporate-style governments utilize the Latin male-singular-gender provisions wherein the “flow of government” is managerial, from the top down, emanating from the elite ruling class down, using an “Enumerated Charter.” A government using Latin feminine-gender-plural terms alters the “flow of government” from the bottom, the people. It is truly a government OF the People, BY the People, FOR the People, TO the People, and FROM the People.<sup>[784]</sup>

People are familiar with the following types of government: Democracy is a top down, single “flow” government wherein a “free” elite class and the majority rules. A Republic is also a top down single “flow,” ruled by King, Queen or a dictator, ostensibly designed to meet the needs of all men. There is little, if any difference, between a Corporate Democracy and a Corporate Republic. They both manage the masses from the top down. A Republican form of government means “Of, By, For, From, and To all Men (People).” The “flow” is plural and “plenary” wherein law prohibits corporate influences from influencing the natural Family and everyone is free. In a Republican form of government, there are “natural checks and balances.” The current Hickey & Company version of the Constitution, today’s “Law of the Land,” guarantees only a republican Form of government but abandons the Republican Style of government, a practice that certain colonials “perfected” and initiated in 1787-1790.<sup>[785]</sup>

The colonists intended to establish “National Republican Style” of the government as a perpetual protection “against the natural known ...corporate enemies from within.” Therefore, they created a “Republican in Form” through what they called the original American Instrumentations of Government, something that future generations erroneously call a “Constitution” because of the powerful influence of the European Royal Family Confederate Congress University Publishing House Company and their dominion over our Schools, Churches, and public medias. By this control, they have created a “functionally illiterate society.” The colonists created a Republican form and style of government with the “flow of government extending to and from all of the People.” More importantly, all current “State Enabling Legislation (Acts),” necessitate a Republican form of government that has “equal footing with the original (American Republican Colonial) States” in every detail. Keep in mind that “The People,” the early United American Colonies were the states, individually, or as a collective group through the men who they temporarily appointed as their Deputies who functioned precisely and according to their “non-enumerated Declarations.”<sup>[786]</sup>

Deputies, not representatives or senators, oversaw the government at the local level and at the new “Perfected National Supreme Republican level.” Further, the colonists described the instrumentality as *The Supreme Law of the People*, not the law of the Land (culture). The “Deputies,” responsible ethical individuals, performed “specific duties” for the People and were accountable to the People.

### The Unanimous Declaration of the United Colonies, July 4, 1776

Establishment historians, as taught in all government schools and in privately endowed universities, inaccurately portray historical events and the people who participated in the crucial circumstances. The two political factions functioned when the founders drafted the Declaration of Independence, a document that defends the rights of everyone, including the common person. However, British loyalists and their numerous agents opposed extending rights to the American minority, many of whom were farmers, who were struggling for their emancipation from the tyrannies of British rule. Obviously, given that slavery and other cruelties continued to exist, despite the rhetoric of equality, certain people within the American elite establishment had an ulterior agenda wholly detrimental to the ideals of freedom for everyone. These elite traitors remained faithful to the British Crown and the European Royal Family. After the Revolutionary War, these traitors, many of them attorneys, reinitiated their efforts to seized control of the culture after the deputies presented the Unanimous Declaration of the United Colonies on July 4, 1776. The traitors, on behalf of the King, created the Articles of Confederation in order to undermine the Unanimous Declaration of the United Colonies and prevent the distribution and adoption of the ideals of a natural Republican Form and Style of government. If this style of government were successful in America, nations throughout the world would demand it. That would end royalty and elitism everywhere.<sup>[787]</sup>

The people attending the Constitutional Convention purportedly only intended to modify the Articles of Confederation, a document the drafters completed on November 15, 1777. The states had ratified it by March 1, 1781. The intention from the outset of many of its proponents, chief among them James Madison and Alexander Hamilton, was to create a new government rather than fix the existing one.

### **Financing the First Revolution, 1775-1783**

One of the biggest provocations for the Revolutionary War had been the Duties in American Colonies Act 1765 or the Stamp Act of 1765. Following Britain’s very expensive triumph (doubled their national debt) in the French and Indian War (1756–1763), the British Parliament retained their military forces in America. Members of Parliament did not recall them, as their friends and officers would be without a military job because the British population would justifiably oppose a standing army. Parliament imposed

a direct tax on the colonies, which required the residents to use specially stamped or embossed paper produced in England for all of the colony's printed materials including legal documents, newspapers, magazines and other items. The colonists had to use British currency to pay for this stamped paper rather than colonial currency. The British imposed this tax to help reimburse the expenses of 10,000 peacetime occupational soldiers in the North American colony.

Between 1776 and 1801, wealthy aristocrats, Henry Knox, a Freemason, Alexander Hamilton and Rufus King plotted to impose a monarchical government in America.<sup>[788]</sup> Robert Morris, Hamilton and the others had the ideological and financial support from a little known historical figure, a son of Portuguese Jewish parents, Haym Solomon (1740-1785) who was born in Lesno, Poland. His family had fled from the Spanish monarch; he lived in Poland and then toured Europe where he gained knowledge of finances and learned to speak several languages. In 1772, he ultimately arrived in England, and similar to many of his associates, from there he went to New York in about 1775, where he became a broker for foreign trade, and joined the Sons of Liberty, a group of merchants and traders who reportedly opposed British rule. The New York Tammany Society, initially called the Sons of Liberty, housed the minutes of its meetings in the New York Public Library.<sup>[789]</sup>

In 1776, during the war, German Hessians, mercenary soldiers, brokered by Mayer A. Rothschild, and working for the English enemies, accused Solomon of spying. The British incarcerated him. Because he could speak German fluently, a Hessian General employed his services as an interpreter. After numerous other legal issues and at least two arrests by the British, the story is that he managed to buy his freedom from the guards with some hidden gold coins.<sup>[790]</sup> Just because Solomon could speak German, he avoided execution by the British, and lent large sums of money to the Americans to finance a war largely promoted by leaders who happened to be Freemasons, does not prove a connection between Mayer A. Rothschild and Haym Solomon.

Solomon moved to Philadelphia where he helped found a large synagogue, and where he met George Washington, Alexander Hamilton, Benjamin Franklin and Robert Morris who soon relied on Solomon and his financial resources. There are numerous notes in Morris' diary referring to Solomon and his valuable assistance. Solomon brokered several loans totaling about \$700,000, with bankers in France and Holland. He even offered interest-free loans to Thomas Jefferson, James Madison and James Monroe. He fell ill with tuberculosis at the end of the war while trying unsuccessfully to obtain repayment for his efforts. He died in 1785, leaving a pregnant wife and three children.<sup>[791]</sup>

When Washington had needed money to pay his soldiers, the international bankers loaned him money on the condition that he appoint Hamilton as the first Treasury Secretary. Washington's soldiers were about to mutiny as they had not been paid and lacked essential supplies, so he sent a messenger to Solomon in Philadelphia to request a loan of \$400,000 to pay and provide supplies for his troops. Solomon was at the synagogue when the messenger arrived. Solomon had a hurried conference with his friends. They left the synagogue and soon returned with the requested funds. There is speculation that Solomon contributed \$240,000 to the total amount of the loan. Hamilton and Washington agreed to establish a central bank at the end of the war.<sup>[792]</sup>

Jewish financiers funded the American Revolution as well as the war people mistakenly refer to as the Civil War. Haym Solomon financed the Revolutionary War while Seligman Brothers and Speyer & Company financed the North and Frédéric Emile d'Erlanger financed the South. Kuhn Loeb and Company financed the development of the railroad industry. Haym Solomon, highly regarded as a hero, may have been a Rothschild agent, based solely on circumstantial evidence. If he was associated with Rothschild, then the House of Rothschild financed both sides of the American Revolution. International bankers avoid allegiances to any country. However, they will finance any government that accommodates the bankers

who make huge profits through warfare. Ultimately, they seek to annihilate all governments in order to establish their own global governance. Financing war accomplishes the destabilization of a country and accrues great indebtedness, payable to the Rothschilds.<sup>[793]</sup>

The Second Treaty of Paris, signed on September 3, 1783, with The Ten Articles, released the U.S. from British control, who then felt threatened by the potential commercial rivalry by American business interests. American merchants sought profitable trade opportunities other than with England. The pioneer voyage of the *Empress of China*, a privateer refitted for commerce, captained by John Green, left for China on February 22, 1784 and returned to New York on May 11, 1785. A wealthy syndicate owned the ship, some of the richest men in the nation, including Morris who was active in slave trading and auctioneering, war profiteering and was an investor in a plantation. He was in the Pennsylvania Assembly and was a U.S. Senator (1789-1795) during which time he continued his private business endeavors. He voted against the Congressional motion for independence on July 1, 1776. On March 12, 1791, he contracted with Massachusetts to purchase thousands of acres in Western New York for \$333,333.

America had borrowed money from bankers in Spain, France, Holland and private German interests that amounted to \$77.1 million. The debt was comprised of foreign debt that totaled \$11.7 million, federal debt that totaled \$40.4 million and state debt was \$25 million. Hamilton proposed that the federal government assume all of the state debts.<sup>[794]</sup> He wrote, “All communities divide themselves into the few and the many. The first are rich and wellborn, the other the mass of the people. The people are turbulent and changing; they seldom judge or determine right.”<sup>[795]</sup> The national debt, due to unpaid interest, increased after the war ended. It was a sizeable debt and there were unresolved factors between the states and the Union.<sup>[796]</sup> Hamilton said, “A national debt, if it is not excessive, will be to us a national blessing.”<sup>[797]</sup>

George Hammond, the first British Ambassador to the U.S. (1791-1795), criticized the French who may have encouraged the American “discontents” to rebel against the British.<sup>[798]</sup> He reported to his superior that he personally “was doing everything in his power to bring about a breach between France and the United States.”<sup>[799]</sup> Secret conversations transpired between Hamilton and Hammond who favored a limited monarchy. In 1793, after the successful revolution, William Willcocks was a Hamilton representative and always added, “God bless the colonies” under his signature. Oliver Wolcott Jr., a Yale graduate and Treasury Secretary (1795-1800) said that a single despot was a refuge from “the despotism of the many.” He favored the autocratic government that Rufus King and Henry Knox advocated.<sup>[800]</sup>

John Beckley, the Clerk of the House, was Jefferson’s loyal informant. He told Jefferson that while he was in New York in 1793, Sir John Temple showed him a letter from Sir Gregory Page Turner, a Member of Parliament, which confirmed that Britain considered Hamilton, King, and William L. Smith, of Charleston, South Carolina, as the main supporters of British interests in America. Hamilton, rather than Hammond, was their most effective minister. Turner counseled these men to attempt to change the government. If they met failure and the anti-Federalists assumed power, they could have asylum in England. Beckley said that Foreign Secretary William Grenville also confirmed this in a letter.<sup>[801]</sup> According to the *Columbian Sentinel*, May 15, 1793, in Charleston, men belonging to the aristocratic St. George Society (the English founded it in 1733) drank toasts to Britain’s King. Charles C. Pinckney, a Federalist and Constitutional delegate from South Carolina, didn’t approve of Smith’s monarchical inclinations, as noted in Pinckney’s letter to his brother, Thomas, October 5, 1794, in the Pinckney Papers in the Library of Congress.<sup>[802]</sup>

**The Confederate Congress and  
The University Publishing House Company of New York**

During the foundational years of the country, two separate opposing governmental entities, simultaneously introduced and enacted policies and legislation. They were the (1) American Continental Republican Congress Colonial deputies of Philadelphia and (2) the Confederate Congress and its University Publishing House Company representatives of New York. People referred to the Confederate Congress as “The Royal Company.” Currently, these entities, under different names, still exist. The deputies of the American Continental Republican Congress convened two emergency Conventions (1776 and 1787) in Philadelphia. Patriots drove The Royal Company “underground” numerous times during the course of history.<sup>[803]</sup>

The Confederate Congress and University Company of New York mandates, through licensing and bureaucratic regulations, that all city, county and state governments, even churches, and other artificial entities, incorporate (become corporations). Accordingly, through legalistic machinations, they have created a corporate culture. The privately owned Confederate political state, the top corporation, controls all corporations and may then take over all corporate assets or resources. The original colonial government wanted to apply their Republican style of government to everyone. However, certain individuals instituted a Confederate America whose laws and constitution would only benefit whites. These individuals drafted the Articles of Royal Confederate Congress, which soon eradicated the original individual Colonial Declarations of the Republican government. Those declarations abolished every form of slavery, a tyranny that the corporate state tolerated, not only for the profit but also for the cheap labor. People fought the American Revolution to end the despotic corporate influence.<sup>[804]</sup>

The physical war ended with America as the victor but another subtle war began between the colonists and citizens and a sophisticated assemblage of academics who were associated with the underground Confederate Congress and its University Publishing House Company of New York. These “federal agents,” actually British agents, referred to themselves as “The United States,” seemingly a benign designation, still extant today. While Americans appeared to win the bloody revolution, we must ask who really won – who is in charge today? Is it the British corporate model or the yeoman farmers and the common person? The King’s agents skillfully transformed the People’s government into a corporation in such an ingenious way that “hundreds of millions of people” exist under an illusion of freedom.<sup>[805]</sup>

The framers drafted the Declaration of Independence of 1776 and the original Perfected National Declaration of American Republican government presented at the second Continental Convention. However, within thirty-eight years, the traitorous King’s agents “subjugated” the population under the King again. The members of the Congress in Philadelphia had established a government of, by, to, for and from the People by way of a Declaration from the People, in the form of the Declaration of Independence. This government was “Republican in form and in style.” Meanwhile, the Congress in New York, comprised of the King’s agents, were formulating a method of altering that Republican government into a “democratic/republic corporation” via a charter, something the King had executed numerous times. They called their deceptive charter a constitution.<sup>[806]</sup>

A Declaration, often referred to as a single statute, begins with an enacting clause “that identifies the individual(s) making the declaration and his/her/their sovereign authority in its singular purpose, and an integral part of the statute.” The drafter should include one or more paragraphs, beginning with the word “that” following the enacting clause. However, a constitution (corporate charter), typically with a preamble, is composed of several, perhaps dozens, of enumerated statutes for countless purposes. The preamble, usually very noble sounding, is not essential to the constitution, but defines the nature of the charter. In addition, a corporate charter has several “numbered and/or lettered statutes” for various “purposes,” which people call “articles, sections or sub-sections.” The format of the document determines “the difference between freedom and slavery for an entire nation of people.”<sup>[807]</sup>

The King's federalist agents had their headquarters in New York, with agents placed throughout the colonies. They referred to themselves as the Confederate Congress & University Company of New York, otherwise known as the Royal Company of New York. Until 1813, all of the original documents of the Colonial American Republican Government – the Supreme National Republican Declaration (September 1787) and the Unanimous Declaration of the Republican States of the Colonies (July 4, 1776) were in the Declarative Format, like the Declaration of Independence. The King and his agents referred to them as the American Republican Freeman Letters.<sup>[808]</sup>

By the War of 1812, many of the founding fathers were elderly, feeble or dead. The British torched Washington DC and burned the American Colonial Archives Depositories in Arlington and Richmond. Librarians (British operatives) at the Confederate Congress library in New York burned selective documents. Speaking of British operatives, people may know some of today's British operatives as Rhodes Scholars. Apparently, those librarians removed some of the documents out to the street and burned them with some pieces of furniture. The librarians retained the "transposed versions of the official American Colonial documents." The University Press, Crown Press, and other private publishers associated with the Confederate Congress Code Publishing Houses published hundreds of editions of the burned documents and disseminated them around the country. British agents substituted the original "Colonial Declarations of Republican government" for the enumerated corporate constitution, thus removing the necessity for a public vote.<sup>[809]</sup>

Beginning in 1813, the Confederate Congress and its University Publishing House Company seized control of the government and replaced all of the original non-enumerated Declarations with "enumerated Constitutions" by substituting the word "That" with a capital Arabic numerical symbol, replacing semi-colons with commas, altering words and their order within the text. After the depository fires of 1812, agents re-named the colonies "states" and designated them as subservient to the Confederate Congress. British agents eliminated the perception of a "corporate-free Republican government through their deceptive substitution of the original documents. The elite, attempting to impose corporate control, intended to subvert the idea of a free people who governed from the bottom up from extending to the rest of the world. The European Royal Family and their bankers want to enforce a corporate model throughout the world by exploiting the trauma and tribulation of warfare."<sup>[810]</sup>

The people were largely unaware of the switch and the subtle power of corporations and still imagined that they were free sovereign citizens and that the government was accountable to them. Yet, the elite altered the government structure wherein they changed the original Senate and House of Deputies to the Senate and House of Representatives, supposedly two distinct legislative bodies. The Private University Publishing House, through their publications, reduced Colonial governments to "sovereign states" having certain "states' rights" while abandoning all reference to "Sovereign Republican States" and reducing each entity to a "corporate subject status." British warfare against the colonists, their homes and public building facilitated the transition.<sup>[811]</sup>

In 1845, top operatives in the Confederate Congress and University Company decided to produce an official version of the "United States Constitutions" because of the various versions and the lack of uniformity. Predictably, people not having a standard may have requested clarification to halt the confusion regarding the numerous versions of the very copies they had placed into circulation. This is what David Icke calls problem, reaction, solution. A government creates a problem that perplexes the population who then ask for a solution – one the government had already prepared but could never have imposed without the initial problem. Some of the Colonies had adopted statehood, modeling their state constitutions after the enumerated Confederate Congress version. The Congress and the Courts decided, because of the emergency, to create a "standard version."<sup>[812]</sup>

# The Bait and Switch Constitution

Sir William Hickey, Esq. and certain members of Congress created the 1846 version of “The Constitution for the American People” in a 400-page book allegedly embodying original American documents, which people supposedly rescued from the fire in 1812 with the addition of an enumerated Index. Hickey and friends filed this “Standard Version” with the Secretary of State James Buchanan (1845-1849) and the Court and a “select membership” of Congress adopted the new “constitution,” without a public vote, through a resolution and by their “volume purchase” of the Hickey constitution in February 1847. After the “Post Roads and Franking Act” of March 1847, the government distributed it to the public. At this time, members of Congress added the Twelve Articles (Charter) of Federal Appendages, called the Bill of Rights, as an “appendage” to the Hickey Constitution” and abandoned the original 1787 “National Republican Declaration” document that the Colonies ratified in 1789. Thereafter, the people ignorantly adopted the American “Constitution and Federal Appendages” without knowing that it was not an accurate copy of the original documents but rather the product of the Confederate Congress and University Company.<sup>[813]</sup>

In the front matter of William Hickey’s book, we read,

*In the Senate of the United States, Thursday, February 18, 1847,*

*Resolved, That the secretary be directed to procure for these of the Senate two thousand copies of the authentic copy of the Constitution, with an analytical index, and compilation of other public documents, recently printed and placed in the hands of the members, provided the price shall not exceed the sum of one dollar and twenty-five cents per copy.*

*Resolved, That ten thousand additional copies of the authentic copy of the Constitution, with an analytical index, etc., be preserved for the use of the Senate, provided they will be furnished at a deduction of twenty per cent, on the price above states.*

*Attest,*

*Asbury Dickens, Secretary*<sup>[814]</sup>

Hickey’s new Constitution, with Articles of Confederate Appendages, and Index set a standard for the new state constitutions. The Confederate University B.A.R. Representatives managed the American government under the pretense that it was still the government of the people. Members of the Confederate Congress and University Publishing Company altered the laws, formulated educational and media materials, debased the laws of grammar to modify the laws.<sup>[815]</sup>

The People who participated in the Great American Experiment (1774-1812) attempted to utilize a Natural (National) Republican Government (of, by, from, to, for) through its operation (Style) and by its documents (in declarative Form). It differed from every other style of government operation. A Republic, Democracy, Anarchy, Monarchy, and Oligarchy are all corporate in nature and operation. Each of these employs a singular flow of government from the Ruler or the Ruling Class downward. Additionally, each of these types of governments composes their documents in an “enumerated” style like a Corporate Charter or “Constitution Form.” American citizens currently live under a Confederate system of government wherein certain people have violated our liberties through the “enumerated code” of a Constitution that William Hickey and his collaborators created in 1846 to take the place of the original declarative non-enumerated documents.<sup>[816]</sup>

The Constitution, a contract, functions as a list of enumerated independent statutes for a variety of purposes, whereas, a statute is a non-enumerated declaration, to denote a single purpose. State constitutions, originally non-enumerated documents, prohibit the amendment of an existing statute by their inclusion of the original title or enacting clause. State constitutions are supposed to be a single statute, declarative documents which initially equalized, all on an equal basis, the original fourteen colonies as Colonial Republican States. William Hickey converted the “original Perfected 1787 Supreme Republican

Declaration of the United American Colonies into a “Constitution Form.” Hickey and his collaborators changed the title, the enacting clause, into a “preamble.” They then placed an “enumerated Charter of Confederate Appendages & Index” at the end where, even then, a subservient dumbed down population would not immediately notice the alterations.<sup>[817]</sup>

In 1868, following the uncertainty and turmoil of warfare, conspirators added the “Federal Charter of Appendages” to William Hickey’s 1846 version of the “United States Constitution FOR the American People.” Additionally, schemers, with the Reconstruction Amendments, altered the legal status of blacks from “property” to what author Ricardo Johansson calls “free property” with the Fourteenth Amendment on July 9, 1868. Following the turmoil of the civil rights movement during the 1950s and 1960s, plotters created more legislation under the guise of promoting racial equality.<sup>[818]</sup>

California became a state (corporation) on September 9, 1850, a branch of the federal Corporation, which had adopted Hickey’s Constitution of the United States of America in 1847 as the Constitution OF the United States with the District of Columbia Organic Act enacted on February 21, 1871. Officials designed California’s constitution as an enumerated corporate contract. Presumably, officials in every state that entered the Union after 1847 devised the same type of corporate contract. To facilitate the process, select lawyers from Boston and New York, associated with the Confederate Congress and University Company, assisted the Convention Delegates in the territories to draft “Corporate state Constitutions” instead of “Republican State Declarations.” The Convention Delegates believed they had devised a “Constitution framework” based on a “Republican in Form.” Form refers to a document as the basis for a government while style refers to the operation of that said government, which may be incompatible with the document. Other states utilized the model that the delegates, with help from the east, used in 1849 in California. People knew this as “The California Code.”<sup>[819]</sup>

## Restoration of a Republican Form and Style of Government

It is possible, with education and understanding, for the people to restore the original Declarative (Republican) Form and Style of government but cannot include the subsequent amendments, the enumerated Charters of Appendage or the constitutions that the states have adopted since 1969. It is also essential to know and understand THE FIVE MAIN GRAMMAR USEAGES OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY. These five elements are Spelling, Word Order, Punctuation, Capitalisism, and Signs & Symbols (to include Arabic Numeral Symbols). When an individual applies one or more of these main usages to our written laws, he has created A STATUTORY AMENDMENT. Hence, THE LAW OF GRAMMAR GOVERNS THE WRITTEN LAW OF STATUTE. If the person substitutes a capital or small Arabic Numeral Symbol for the declarative word “That” in any statute, he has created an AMENDMENT to the original statute.<sup>[820]</sup>

A lawyer, member of Congress, or collaborator may transpose a “Declaration (A Statute),” such as the Declaration of Independence, into an enumerated “Corporate Constitution” for “other purposes.” Therefore, the People, such as a group of patriots, must decide whether they want to retain the Corporate Representative Style and Form of Government or establish a Supreme National Republican Style and Form using a Deputy system rather than a representative (unrestricted power of attorney). The corporate or federal system that treacherous men imposed upon us is diametrically opposed to the original Colonial Declarations of Republican Government. From 1774 to 1812, in the American Colonial Republican example, the individual People, permanent entities, comprised “The State.” A Union or Con-Federation of men, based on amendable documents, cannot co-exist indefinitely.<sup>[821]</sup>

It is possible for the American People to resurrect their existing original Colonial Supreme National Republican Form and Style of Government. If the People, having the creative authority, desire a

Republican Form, the author of the document needs to identify all of the People in the document's Enacting Clause, an integral part of the statute and is NOT a mere preamble to a "constitution."<sup>[822]</sup> The objective of an enacting clause at the beginning of any piece of legislation is to declare the authority associated with the act and identify it as an act of legislation. For instance, in Illinois, where I live, officials use the phrase "Be it enacted by the People of the State of Illinois, represented in the General Assembly."<sup>[823]</sup>

The original fourteen American Colonial Declaration "Enacting Clauses" comprise "the 'Enacting Clause of Purpose' which is essentially the main body of the Unanimous Declaration of 4 July 1776," a single Statute document. These emanated, to a certain degree, from the 1774 Virginia Plan drafted by James Madison for the Virginia delegates and later presented on May 29, 1787 at the Constitutional Convention of 1787. The "Deputy Framers" authored the Unanimous Republican Declaration of July 4, 1776, which they later "perfected" in September 1787 using the same grammar form and style, referred to as the "Republican in Form" or "Letter Form." These distinctive American Colonial Republican documents, known as the "The American Freeman Letters" clarified an innovative and experimental Republican-style government.<sup>[824]</sup>

The "Deputy Framers," in The Enacting Clause, used the People as the authority who ordained and established this (Statute), embracing the defense of liberty, safety, and welfare of the National (natural) Independent Republican States of America as its primary objective by its established Deputies. We have here (1) the Authority: We, the People of these United Colonies; (2) the ends for which the More Perfect 1787 Supreme National Republican Statute; (3) the explicit ordaining of this Statute, including this introductory clause; (4) the Nation of Republican States for whom they created the document, the People of These United Colonies of America.<sup>[825]</sup>

When people collectively "declare something into being, like a government, they are identified in the Enacting Clause of that Declaration (A Statute) clarifying the authority issuing the declaration and its singular purpose. They are the creators of that government. They are the lawmakers and givers." Conversely, a preamble introduces a corporate constitution and is separate from the enumerated statutes within the document. Even if the drafters of the preamble mention the people, it merely sustains the illusion that the people are important. A constitution with a preamble denotes a corporate/charter form of government that CEO and a Board of Directors manages without regard to the "The People. The drafters or our current corporate form of government used the phrase "We the People" to provide the illusion that the People are a dominant factor in the decision making process.<sup>[826]</sup>

"The only distinction between this Perfected 1787 Colonial Republican Statute and the individual fourteen Colonial Statutes in place from 1774 to 1787 is the coined word Nation (National)." This helps to clarify why the Deputies made no additional oath at the new Perfected National Seat of Government. Their previous oath(s) were still as applicable under their respective National Seats as they had been in their individual respective Colonial Seat of their residence. The oath of the seat and oath of fidelity pertained to every Colonial Deputy who was now functioning in this Natural (National) Republican plenary system. The oaths were valid irrespective of his temporary appointment level. "The individual Colonial Statute, and the new Supreme National Republican Statute, placed limitations of action only upon the Seat of the temporary Deputies identified therein."<sup>[827]</sup>

The top corporate officers, now posing as the legitimate American government, though extremely well compensated are not professional, the best qualified, and they certainly have not demonstrated a high degree of integrity. These imposters, supposedly working for the Public Good, have not conformed to the Will of the People since 1777.<sup>[828]</sup>

# The Jay Treaty

American relations with Britain did not improve following the Revolutionary War. British exports flooded the American market while British trade restrictions and tariffs blocked American exports. Britain and their bankers still attempted to dictate terms and who should be paying war reparations. Britain maintained control of northern forts in the Northwest Territory (the area west of Pennsylvania). They should have surrendered them according to the Treaty of Paris in 1783. Yet, thirteen years later, they are still occupying the forts, after America supposedly won the war but Britain was still acting dictatorial. Britain still seized naval and military supplies from neutral ships. James Madison suggested a trade war, sure to work given that the current warfare with France had debilitated Britain. Washington rejected that idea and sent John Jay, from a wealthy family of New York merchants, to Britain to negotiate a new treaty. The treaty demanded that Britain leave the northwestern posts; grant America “most favored nation” status, while America agreed to limit their commercial relations in the British West Indies.

Attorney John Jay, a leader in the Federalist Party and former ambassador to Spain and France, was the first Chief Justice of the United States (1789-1795). He was also the chief negotiator of The Jay Treaty, a document crafted by Treasury Secretary Alexander Hamilton to resolve issues with Britain following the Revolutionary War that the Treaty of Paris of 1783 apparently failed to address or else the British simply ignored. Because Britain and France were engaged in warfare, British officials wanted to improve their relationship with America. Jefferson and his supporters opposed the Jay Treaty but the Senate ratified it by a two-thirds majority. The debate over the Jay Treaty led to the development of the nation’s “First Party System.” Officials in both countries signed Jay’s Treaty in November 1794, and both countries officially ratified it and it became effective on February 29, 1796.

According to the Jay Treaty, America, the winner of the Revolutionary War (1775–1783), agreed to pay reparations of £600,000 sterling to King George III, more than a decade after the war. The Senate, perhaps bribed by the British-serving Federalists, ratified the Jay Treaty during a secret session. The Senators ordered the newspapers not to publish the details of the treaty. However, Benjamin Franklin’s grandson published the facts, which resulted in a public outrage. In angered retaliation, members of Congress passed the Alien and Sedition Acts (1798) so that federal judges could prosecute editors and publishers for exposing corruption within the government.

President George Washington, in his support of the Senate and their ratification of the Jay Treaty, exercised Executive privilege, a practice that people can trace back to the English Crown Privilege.<sup>[829]</sup> Professor John Kozy wrote, “Executive privilege, deliberative process privilege, state secrets privilege, and public interest immunity are forms of English crown privilege. They are attributes of monarchical systems. All are derived from the common-law principle that the internal processes of the executive branch of government are immune from normal disclosure, and all are based on the belief that by guaranteeing confidentiality, the executive branch receives more candid advice than would be given if confidentiality were not assured. Such advice, it is claimed, results in better decisions for society as a whole, but not a jot of empirical evidence has ever been cited to support this claim. In fact, the evidence supports the opposite view that confidential advice results in decisions that produce horrid results for society.”<sup>[830]</sup>

In 1796, members of the House of Representatives requested John Jay’s negotiation documents regarding his discussions with British officials from President George Washington. However, the president denied their request explaining that the Senate had an exclusive responsibility in the ratification of treaties. Therefore, Washington decided that the House had no justifiable reason to evaluate the material. Consequently, Washington supplied the documents to the Senate but refused to provide them to the House.

President Thomas Jefferson used the executive privilege precedent during Aaron Burr's trial for treason in 1807. Burr wanted the court to compel Jefferson to supply Burr with his private letters regarding him. Chief Justice John Marshall, a leader of the Federalist Party and therefore a powerful advocate for a strong federal government, was Jefferson's political adversary. Marshall, the architect of a strong Supreme Court, ruled that the Sixth Amendment did not exclude the president from providing the requested letters. Jefferson claimed that revelation of the document's contents would jeopardize public safety. Marshall said that the court would make such decisions, not the president. Jefferson complied with Marshall's order but insisted that he was doing so voluntarily and not because of the authority of the court.

The Jay Treaty failed to resolve American complaints regarding neutral shipping rights and to obtain adequate compensation for the slaves the British seized during the Revolution, the reason so many Southerners objected to the treaty. Jefferson and Madison suspected that a closer commercial alliance and economic ties with Britain would ravage republicanism and strengthen the Federalists. However, George Washington and John Jay supported Hamilton's newly created Federalist Party, which strongly supported the treaty. The Federalists, with Washington's prestige, mobilized public opinion in favor of the treaty. The debates over the Treaty "transformed the Republican movement into a Republican party."<sup>[833]</sup> Additionally, Jay failed to acquire just compensation for the slaves the British seized which provoked the South and encouraged their opposition.

## **The Whiskey Rebellion, Suppressing Opposition**

Small farmers and others on the western edge of the United States opposed numerous policies advocated by the eastern-based national government that, in 1791, imposed an excise tax on whiskey. Treasury Secretary Alexander Hamilton suggested this tax as part of his program to centralize the national debt following the Revolutionary War. When tax collectors attempted to collect this tax, violence finally erupted in July 1794 after a U.S. marshal, a stranger in the area, attempted to deliver officials writs to distillers who refused to pay the tax. Over five hundred armed men convened at the home of General John Neville, the local tax inspector. George Washington then sent a group of mediators to western Pennsylvania to negotiate with the rebels. The president, at the suggestion of Alexander Hamilton, also raised a militia force to quash the hostility. Before the military arrived, the insurrection had already subsided. However, the military arrested about twenty men who officials later acquitted.

This incident, which people refer to as the Whiskey Rebellion, revealed that the national government was prepared, willing and capable of using physical force to suppress violent opposition to its laws. Government officials still found it almost impossible to collect the whiskey excise tax. This event contributed to the development of political parties in the United States. President Thomas Jefferson repealed the whiskey tax in opposition to Hamilton's Federalist Party, when his party assumed power in 1800.

In 1789, a new government began operations after the states ratified the U.S. Constitution. The Articles of Confederation, the authority of the previous government, did not have the power to levy taxes but rather, had borrowed money to pay the government's debts, which now totaled \$54 million. Additionally, the states had accumulated \$25 million of debt. Secretary of the Treasury Alexander Hamilton sought to exploit the accrued debt through imposing a financial system like the British structure. He claimed it would encourage prosperity and national unity. In his *Report on Public Credit*, he advised Congress to combine the state and national liabilities into one debt that the federal government would fund. Congress approved Hamilton's recommendations in June and July of 1790.

Consequently, the national government now needed a revenue source to satisfy the debts of the bondholders. By December 1790, Hamilton suggested that the national government increase import duties, the government's principal source of revenue, as high as possible. He promoted the passage of an excise tax on domestically distilled liquors, the first tax imposed by the national government on all domestic merchandise, supposedly a luxury, according to Hamilton. Because people considered distilled liquor as a luxury, they would be less likely to oppose an excise tax on it. Of course, the social reformers supported what they viewed as a "sin tax" and hoped they could exploit the situation to raise public awareness about the negative effects of alcohol.

However, many people, especially in the west, drank whiskey. The small farmers augmented their income by trading or selling whiskey from their own stills. Farmers residing in the Appalachian Mountains

distilled their extra grain into whiskey for retail purposes, as it was easier to transport over the mountains than grain. With this whiskey tax, the western farmers could not be competitive with the eastern grain producers. Poorer people often received whiskey rather than wages so essentially the excise tax was an income tax that the wealthier easterners escaped. Small farmers, who distilled whiskey on a seasonal basis, opposed the tax because it gave unfair tax breaks to large eastern distillers. A distiller could pay a base fee or by the gallon. Large distillers produced more whiskey and chose to pay a flat fee, which equated to less tax per the gallon. Small western farmers usually paid a higher tax per gallon making them less competitive.

The majority of the residents, especially in the four southwestern counties, of the western frontier opposed legislation on the whiskey excise tax. Nevertheless, the legislators passed it, so several Pennsylvanians collaborated in order to repeal the law. Residents in four counties, Allegheny, Fayette, Washington, and Westmoreland, joined in a meeting on July 27, 1791 in Fayette County to select delegates for a meeting in Pittsburgh in September 1791 in an attempt to repeal the law. The leaders of the Pittsburgh convention petitioned the Pennsylvania Assembly and the U.S House of Representatives, both in Philadelphia. The government reduced the tax in May 1792. On September 11, 1791, in Washington County, a gang of men tarred and feathered Robert Johnson, a new tax collector. Because of this and other similar incidences, government officials did not attempt to collect tax in 1791 and early 1792.

Small farmers in Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia also opposed the whiskey excise. Officials did not collect the tax in Kentucky. In 1792, Hamilton wanted to send the military to suppress resistance in western North Carolina. In August 1792, people held a second convention in Pittsburgh to talk about the whiskey tax. Attendees included Albert Gallatin, a future Treasury Secretary. The Mingo Creek Association, a militant group, controlled the convention. Hamilton viewed the second Pittsburgh convention as a threat to the federal government's authority. Washington and Hamilton were uncomfortable by the resistance in Pennsylvania, as the national capital was located there. Hamilton drafted a presidential proclamation condemning opposition to the excise laws. Washington signed the declaration on September 15, 1792, and had it published in numerous newspapers.

On August 1, 1794, approximately 7,000 protestors, primarily non-land owning poor people, congregated at Braddock's Field, a historic battlefield. They did not own whiskey stills or otherwise participate in its production but were outraged over the excise tax, along with other economic injustices. Some of the protestors wanted to march on Pittsburgh and wage havoc on the wealthy who they felt had brought about this situation. David Bradford, deputy attorney-general for Washington County, Pennsylvania, praised the French Revolution and likened himself to Robespierre, a leader of the French Reign of Terror. The protestors wanted to separate themselves from the United States and ally with Spain or Britain.

On August 14, 1794, delegates from the six protesting counties convened a meeting at Parkinson's Ferry where they drafted resolutions and appointed a committee to meet with a group of men that President Washington had sent. He wanted to stop an armed insurrection, maintain the government's authority, all without alienating the public. While he had commissioners, Attorney General William Bradford, Justice Jasper Yeates of the Pennsylvania Supreme Court, and Senator James Ross, prepared to negotiate, he also raised the militia, as he had no confidence in the commissioners' ability to squelch the rebellion and prevent violence. The Militia Act of 1792 required that a justice of the Supreme Court make certain that law enforcement was necessary.

On August 4, 1794, Justice James Wilson claimed that people in western Pennsylvania were in a state of rebellion. On August 7, Washington decided, with "the deepest regret," to use the military to suppress the rebellion. He ordered the insurgents in western Pennsylvania to disband by September 1.

President Washington accused the "self-created societies" of initiating the rebellion in Pennsylvania,

which people refer to as the Whiskey Rebellion. People, even then, revered Washington and he would not have used military authority to put down the insurrection. Rather, other powers within the administration instigated the military action. However, the secret societies soon went underground. People, because of his position, would not attack Washington as a witch-hunter for making claims about secret societies. Nonetheless, they organized in America and waited for the right opportunity for a world-revolution. People able to withstand the constant “brainwashing” of the press understand the high stakes that are involved.<sup>[834]</sup>

The committee agreed to abide by the government’s directions and submit to its conditions. Some of the protestors supported that decision while others opposed it, especially those who felt they had no voice, the poor and the landless. Two of the representatives, William Findley and David Redick, were to meet Washington to stop the oncoming militia. Washington and Hamilton argued that if they turned the military back, violence would erupt. They called up a military force of 12,950 men using a draft to acquire that many people as relatively few men volunteered for the militia. However, the people in three Virginia counties and in some places in Maryland attempted to evade the draft. Therefore, Governor Thomas Sim Lee of Maryland sent 800 men to suppress the anti-draft riot in Hagerstown during which officials arrested about 150 people.

The military marched into western Pennsylvania in October 1794 and subdued the insurrection. Some of the leaders fled to the west for safety. Government officials investigated, arrested, and tried about twenty individuals. They convicted two men for treason – Philip Vigol and John Mitchell, who they sentenced to hang. Washington later pardoned both men. President Washington’s management of the Whiskey Rebellion brought approval from the majority of the population. This incident was evidence that the new national government was willing to crush strong opposition to its laws. President Washington viewed his actions as appropriate and successful. Officials still had a difficult time collecting the whiskey excise, a situation that contributed to the development of political parties. President Thomas Jefferson and his party repealed the whiskey tax in opposition to Hamilton’s Federalist Party.

Numerous people, using the Whiskey Rebellion as an example, have inquired about what kinds of protests are legitimate according to the Constitution. Christian G. Fritz, legal historian and a law professor claimed that although certain people had ratified the Constitution, there lacked a consensus about sovereignty. Federalists maintained that the government was sovereign because the people had established it. Therefore, protest actions, like those during the American Revolution, were now illegitimate. However, the Whiskey Rebels and their supporters argued that the war had established the people as a “collective sovereign.” Therefore, the people had a collective right to challenge the government through constitutional measures.

Historian Steven Boyd suggests that the government suppression during the Whiskey Rebellion aggressively persuaded anti-Federalist westerners to acquiesce and finally assent to the Constitution. Further, they believed the way to change the things in the government they opposed was through voting rather than by resisting the government. Federalists ultimately agreed to allow the people to participate more in the way officials governed them. Federalists still attempted to constrain freedom of speech that was critical of the government through the enactment of the Alien and Sedition Acts in 1798, following the Whiskey Rebellion. However, the Federalists abandoned their efforts to inhibit and challenge the freedom of assembly and the right to petition.

## **The Original Thirteenth Amendment**

When the architects of the constitution drafted that document they included the Title of Nobility Clause in Article I, Section 9, Clause 8 of the United States Constitution, that forbids the United States government

from granting titles of nobility and also restricts officials in the government from receiving gifts from foreign states without the consent of the U.S. Congress.

Astute colonists recognized that attorneys, also known as esquires, actually held a British Title of Nobility, and functioned as “Change Agents” for the British government. On January 18, 1810, to prohibit such incompatible influences, Senator Phillip Reed of Maryland proposed the “Title of Nobility” Amendment, the “original” Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution. It is dramatically different from the amendment Congress adopted as the Thirteenth Amendment on December 6, 1865. The senators amended the original Thirteenth Amendment, the “Title of Nobility,” on April 27, 1810. It reads, “If any citizen of the United States shall accept, claim, receive, or retain any title of nobility or honor, or shall, without the consent of Congress, accept and retain any present, pension, office, or emolument of any kind whatever, from any emperor, king, prince, or foreign power, such person shall cease to be a citizen of the United States, and shall be incapable of holding any office of trust or profit under them, or either of them.” A title of distinction included many of the American politicians who were lawyers who had passed the British bar. Thereafter, they held the title of Esquire, a designation just below the status of nobility. The Senate and the House passed the amendment and then sent it to the states for ratification.

On April 27, 1810, the Senate passed the amendment twenty-six to one. Afterward, the House passed it eighty-seven to three. On May 1, 1810, Congress approved the Titles of Nobility Amendment and submitted to the states. Federal officials sent the amendment to the States for ratification. Twelve of the required thirteen states ratified the amendment by December 10, 1812. Just before the thirteenth state could ratify the amendment, the War of 1812 erupted. Connecticut did not ratify it but posted it in *The Public Statute Laws of the State of Connecticut* as a part of the U.S. Constitution in 1821, 1824 and 1835, an action that indicated ratification.

Maryland, December 25, 1810, Ratified

Kentucky, January 31, 1811, Ratified

Ohio, January 31, 1811, Ratified

Delaware, February 2, 1811, Ratified

Pennsylvania, February 6, 1811, Ratified

New Jersey, February 13, 1811, Ratified

Vermont, October 24, 1811, Ratified

Tennessee, November 21, 1811, Ratified

Georgia, November 22, 1811, Ratified

North Carolina, December 23, 1811, Ratified

Virginia, February 7, 1812, Ratified

Massachusetts, February 27, 1812, Ratified

New York, March 12, 1812, did not ratify

New Hampshire, December 9, 1812, Ratified

Connecticut, May 13, 1814, did not ratify

Rhode Island, September 15, 1814, did not ratify

South Carolina, December 21, 1814, tabled the motion<sup>[835]</sup>

In early 1983, David Dodge, an archival research expert, and Tom Dunn, a former Baltimore police investigator were searching among the public records stored in the library in Belfast, Maine for evidence of government corruption. Unexpectedly, they found the “library’s oldest authentic copy” of the U.S. Constitution, printed in 1825. The document included a Thirteenth Amendment, no longer a part of the current Constitution, which prohibited lawyers from functioning in a government office.<sup>[836]</sup>

Dodge and Dunn conducted a seven-year, nationwide investigation for the truth regarding another, earlier version of the historical Thirteenth Amendment of the Constitution. If the Constitution Dodge and Dunn discovered in the Belfast Library was authentic, then conspirators illegally removed a ratified Amendment from the U.S. Constitution. Since 1983, Dodge and Dunn found at least eighteen other copies in separate sources from ten different states and territories disclosing the “missing” Thirteenth Amendment covering a period from 1822 to 1860.<sup>[837]</sup>

In June 1991, Dodge discovered that the state of Virginia had ratified the Thirteenth Amendment, which made it a legal amendment to the Constitution. The evidence that Dodge and Dunn uncovered seems to indicate that the required number of states ratified the Thirteenth Amendment by 1819 and that conspirators removed the amendment, which restricted lawyers from functioning in government positions. Because the people never legally repealed the Amendment, it remains a law to this day. The implications of its removal and the successive deception perpetrated by the conspirators who were involved are enormous.<sup>[838]</sup>

Currently, when attorneys pass the Bar, they may use the title, Esquire. However, under the original Thirteenth Amendment, they cannot legally be American citizens and they are not entitled to occupy a position of trust or profit. Therefore, the laws that the Senate or House of Representatives have enacted or shall pass in the future, wherein there are members of the Bar, are invalid.

“No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or tills of any kind whatever, from any king, prince or foreign State.”<sup>[839]</sup>

“No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.”<sup>[840]</sup>

King George III, who reigned from 1760 to 1820, allegedly established the International Bar Association (IBA) and granted authorization to the IBA to permit all of its members to use the title of Esquire. Apparently, all other Bar Associations are merely appendages to the IBA. The main objective of the original Thirteenth Amendment was to prohibit members of the IBA or other associations from holding office. The fundamental reason for the amendment was to recognize the equality of every citizen. We find the word “Honor” in the amendment, which, according to Webster’s Dictionary, at the time, described any individual “obtaining or having an advantage or privilege over another.” We currently witness this in the nation’s courtrooms wherein citizens and court officials refer to the judge as “Your Honor.” Additionally, people preface the names of members of Congress with the word “Honorable.” A lawyer may legally function as a judge but an ordinary citizen does not have that “honor” despite whatever capabilities he/she might possess in order to evaluate the issues in either a civil or a criminal case.<sup>[841]</sup>

Between 1810 and 1860, politicians, Change Agents, intricately connected to the international bankers, subtly discarded the Thirteenth Amendment without much, if any, opposition from the public. Northern businessmen, financed by the same international bankers, certainly depended upon the regular financial backing, which resulted in the success of their own profitable ventures. The remainder of the population,

without sufficient political representation, did not have the power, money or influence to address the issue of the Thirteenth Amendment if, in fact, they even knew or understood the implications of it. Politicians drafted and then adopted another Thirteenth Amendment on December 6, 1865 to abolish slavery and involuntary servitude. The new amendment did not mention the prohibition against U.S. citizens representing foreign bankers or powers. It would be generations of deceptive financial manipulations, until 1933, before the proverbial hammer would come crushing down and every U.S. consumer, whether they recognized it or not, would finally fall prey to the pervasive parasitical system that would literally make them a wholly owned state asset or conversely, a disposable, useless eater.

The House of Representatives passed another Thirteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution on January 31, 1865. The Senate passed the Amendment on April 8, 1864. Congress adopted the amendment on December 6, 1865; On December 18, Secretary of State William H. Seward announced its official adoption, the first of the Reconstruction Amendments.

However, in violation to the nobility in the Constitution, the British Crown has awarded titles to numerous Americans including the following, Douglas Fairbanks Jr., Bill Gates, Rudi Giuliani, Billy Graham, Alan Greenspan, J. Edgar Hoover, Bob Hope, Henry Kissinger, Andre Previn, and Steven Spielberg. On March 28, 2000, administrators awarded Wesley Clark, U.S. General and NATO Supreme Allied Commander in Europe the position of Knight Commander of the Most Excellent Order of the British Empire. In October 1998, King Juan Carlos, for educational work in Madrid, awarded Lynn Sandstedt, University Professor at the University of Northern Colorado, as a Knight of the Order of Alphonso the Wise. In 1993, H.M. Queen Elizabeth appointed Norman Schwarzkopf and Colin Powell, U.S. Military Generals, as Knights Commander of the Most Honorable Order of the Bath (Honorary). H.M. Queen Elizabeth awarded George Bush, former U.S. President the Knight Grand Cross of the Most Honorable Order of the Bath. Queen Elizabeth also appointed Ronald Reagan, former U.S. President, as Knight Grand Cross of the Most Honorable Order of the Bath. H.M. Queen Elizabeth appointed John Paul Getty II, U.S. a billionaire businessman and Caspar Weinberger, former U.S. Secretary of Defense, as Knights Grand Cross of the Most Excellent Order of the British Empire.

## **Some Reasons for the War of 1812**

### **Congress Refuses to Re-charter the Bank**

There were numerous reasons for the War of 1812. Some people claim that Nathan Rothschild directed the British government to wage war against America because its government opted not to renew the charter for the Bank of the United States. That may have been an issue but it certainly was not the primary reason. Other reasons include the original Thirteenth Amendment and the destruction of the founding documents – both of which facilitated a significant alteration of the government some of the founders initiated.

### **Congress Refuses to Re-charter the Bank**

Many people, especially the state bankers, resented having what amounted to a central bank, under the control of foreigners or their agents (the lawyers in Congress) even fearing that King George was a shareholder. Congress refused to re-charter the bank in 1811. Investors made about 8% profit per year during the twenty years. The federal government cleared \$600,000 from its investment. However, people were very concerned about the bank controlling the government so they allowed the charter to expire. Just before the War of 1812 began, U.S. officials returned subscriptions to the British investors. Stephen Girard was one of the major domestic investors.<sup>[842]</sup> By 1811, the states chartered over 120 banks, some even began issuing their own currency. In retaliation, the federal government resorted to demanding

specie payments in 1817.<sup>[843]</sup>

Allegedly, the First Bank of the United States was well-managed and paid good dividends. However, it refused to accept state bank notes that were not redeemable in specie. Agrarian opponents helped to defeat the re-chartering of the bank, despite the support that President Madison's administration gave it. The bank concluded its affairs and repaid its shareholders. By the end of the War of 1812 (February 18, 1815), the financial system of the country was in chaos.

David Parish, a business partner of Nathan Rothschild's since 1806, underwrote one of the loans that allowed the U.S. to fight the War of 1812. Parish made lots of money during the Napoleonic era after Napoleon Bonaparte, a Freemason, had seized power during the Coup on May 18, 1803. Emmanuel Joseph Sieyès, also known as the Abbé Sieyès, assisted Bonaparte who returned as a war hero from the Middle East. Sieyès was part of the Illuminati through the Jacobin Club. He wrote the *Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen*.

France was bankrupt by the end of the Napoleonic Wars, which was a series of conflicts that lasted from 1803 until 1815. However, these wars were really a continuation of the French Revolution that began in 1789, a war that revolutionized the way that wars were fought which included the concept of collective (for the sake of the whole country) conscription. France conquered most of Europe. However, they were not able to conquer Russia. The war destroyed the Holy Roman Empire and Spain's domination began to dissipate, which inspired nationalistic revolts in its colonies. Because France was economically bankrupt at the end of this period of continual warfare, the British Empire was the dominate world power. Napoleon's defeat at Waterloo on June 18, 1815 resulted in the Treaty of Paris.

President Jefferson enacted the Embargo and Non-Intercourse Acts. Yet, as soon as the St. Lawrence froze over, American farmers crossed with their sleighs to trade with the British Army Commissariat Department. David Parish was a German-born land developer of the St. Lawrence and Jefferson counties. He obtained immunity for his incipient ironworks at Rossie. Parish was an international financial adventurer during the Napoleonic era. He was born in Hamburg, Germany in late 1778. His English grandfather made money in the mercantile business by transferring operations from Scotland to Hamburg. David Parish's career began when he established an Antwerp commercial house by "the favor of Bishop Talleyrand."<sup>[844]</sup>

Napoleon's foreign minister, Talleyrand, allowed Parish to operate and amass a fortune. Parish went to Philadelphia in 1806 as a U.S. agent for a syndicate formed "to transfer a large quantity of bullion belonging to the King of Spain from Mexico to Napoleon's coffers in Paris."<sup>[845]</sup> Parish "acted as the American agent of the fabulously lucrative Spanish colonial bullion trade, which was conducted with the connivance of the English government, Napoleon Bonaparte, and the King of Spain."<sup>[846]</sup> Baring Brothers of London directed the Royal Navy to allow the gold shipment in neutral U.S. ships. By the summer of 1808, the bullion transfer was completed and Parish received one quarter of the syndicate's profit, or \$1,000,000. He stayed in the United States.<sup>[847]</sup> His wealthy father and his married sisters and other family members all lived very comfortably in England. He maintained his close alliance to the Barings of London. Parish, Girard and Astor arranged a Swiss loan of \$16,000,000 for Treasury Secretary Albert Gallatin to pay for the war.<sup>[848]</sup>

Governor Morris convinced David Parish to purchase a large tract of land in northern New York. Morris had met David's father, John in Antwerp in 1798. Morris, a land speculator, persuaded David to purchase the whole township of Ogdensburg with many hundreds of acres in the vicinity for which he paid about \$2 per acre. He built a huge mansion at Ogdensburg, the Red Villa, designed by Renée, the French architect, who Parish brought over in 1811.<sup>[849]</sup> Parish paid Morris \$363,000 for the land and began developing it by laying out the towns of Rossie and Parishville. He built a church, gristmill, sawmill and distillery in

addition to roads leading to other settlements.<sup>[850]</sup> In 1809, people discovered a deposit of iron at Rossie. Parish went to Pennsylvania in 1812 to seek advice on the production of iron ore. He hired William Benbow, an ironmaster from England and then proceeded to build the first blast furnace in Northern New York. For Parish and his associates, the war did not interfere with their business objectives. The Englishmen from Canada regularly dined with Parish.<sup>[851]</sup> In the summer of 1816, David Parish would return to Europe and join a new banking firm in Vienna, a firm that ultimately failed in 1825 during a Rothschild-orchestrated financial crisis. Parish, distressed over his financial losses, jumped into the Danube on April 27, 1826,<sup>[852]</sup> He had helped to establish the Vienna bank with “the blessing of Count Metternich.”<sup>[853]</sup>

At the beginning of the War of 1812, the government offered war bonds to raise the \$16 million to finance the war and repay the French loan. By February, the Treasury had only sold about \$6 million. It finally sold the balance to John Jacob Astor, born Johann Jakob Astor (1763-1848) of New York, Stephen Girard, and David Parish, a Hamburg native. They bought the bonds with their own and borrowed money and then profitably re-sold them to business contacts. Astor, who would become a director of the Second Bank of the United States, and Girard were very successful merchants with an extensive list of business contacts. Consequently, this venture was extremely lucrative. They had purchased the \$10 million block for forty cents on the dollar and sold it for eighty-two cents for a \$4.2 million profit.<sup>[854]</sup>

John Jacob Astor, born in Walldorf, Baden-Württemberg, Germany, learned English when he worked for his brother in London. In 1784, he emigrated from London with \$200 to work for another brother in New York. Bad weather forced the ship he was on to take harbor in Chesapeake Bay where heavy ice locked it in for two months. During that time, he learned about the fur trading business from a fellow passenger. By the spring thaw, he decided to become a fur trader and went to work for Hayman Levy. Ultimately, he also engaged in mercantile trading, real estate speculation, and opium trading. From his opium profits, he purchased huge tracts of land in and around New York City, where his son and grandson erected tenement buildings. He operated in the Pacific Northwest and sold furs in the U.S. and the Orient. He supplied the Indians with sufficient liquor to make them more amenable to his business demands.<sup>[855]</sup>

By 1788, Astor was the Master of the Holland Lodge No. 8 in New York City, a lodge with ties to the Illuminati. He apparently had some special connections with the Brits as he also made a fortune selling opium into China in association with Britain’s East India Company. Baring Brothers was a vehicle for the opium trade with Astor in New York and a network in Philadelphia, Boston and other cities. Astor leveraged his drug profits into real estate in Manhattan, which laid the foundation for one of America’s largest fortunes.<sup>[856]</sup> President Jefferson and Treasury Secretary Gallatin later allowed Astor to evade the embargo imposed on ships in order to get his furs to England.

By the time, Astor had moved to London, the Bavarian government had banned the Illuminati but members had already introduced the craft to others who then took it to America. Thomas Jefferson,<sup>[857]</sup> Albert Gallatin, George Clinton, and Astor allegedly were all members of the Illuminati, a fellowship that promoted an allegedly compassionate dictatorship by illustrious people.<sup>[858]</sup> Low-level members of most organizations have little knowledge of the objectives of the top leaders.

Philadelphia resident Stephen Girard made his fortune trading slaves and opium. He was a pilot, the individual on a ship who was in charge of trading. When China banned the British from smuggling opium into the country, Girard and other Americans took over the trade. Baring Brothers initially financed Girard and he became one of America’s richest men. When he put up half of the \$16 million needed to finance the War of 1812, he charged 10% commission.<sup>[859]</sup> Baring Brothers financed the opium traffic beginning in 1783 and maintained a close association with the prominent Boston families engaged in that trade. John Murray Forbes was a Barings agent, a position earlier occupied by Girard, the father of the

first American on the Hong Shang board.<sup>[860]</sup>

The New York stock exchange had among its thirty-six founders in 1792 – Isaac Gomez, Benjamin Seixas, and Ephraim Hart.<sup>[861]</sup> Before a stock exchange was established, people bought and sold among themselves. Government bonds made up about a third of the securities traded between 1790 and 1817. However, the war interrupted the speculative activity. The government had to issue bonds in order to pay for the war. When the Brits pulled their money out of the country to invest in the war efforts against Napoleon, it became clear just how many investments were foreign. In 1812, stocks were available for four new banks in addition to stocks for infrastructure improvements, like the Erie Canal and maritime insurance companies.<sup>[862]</sup>

With the closure of the Bank of the United States (1812), people, trying to make easy money began speculating. Bank proponents, like Girard and Astor, urged Congress to create the Second Bank of the United States in 1816. Parish led the movement for chartering the Second Bank of the United States.<sup>[863]</sup> Girard had purchased most of the stock as well as the building of the Philadelphia branch of the First Bank of the United States and named it the Bank of Stephen Girard. He invested \$3 million in the Second Bank of the United States as soon as Congress created it, which made him one of the biggest investors.

The second bank was larger and had more credibility with investors. Officials capitalized the bank with \$35 million with the federal government subscribing to 20%, \$7 million. According to the new charter, the president could appoint five of the twenty-five directors. British investors and bankers returned to take advantage of yet another investment opportunity. To encourage investment, the government permitted individuals to buy shares with government bonds. State-chartered banks still resented what seemed like a central bank that could establish branches in every state. The central bank accumulated state bank notes and then demanded specie for them – a nice tradeoff and a vehicle for accumulating gold or silver. The state banks viewed this as an affront to their ability to create their own notes and coin their own money.<sup>[864]</sup> Congress chartered the new bank for twenty years. After two bank presidents, officials appointed Nicholas Biddle as president. State banks and frontiersmen criticized the bank as it catered to the Eastern commercial classes.

## The Destruction of Documents

Britain waged the War of 1812 against the colonies in order to destroy the original Colonial Declarations of Republican Government. In the American Colonial Archives Depository Fires, the British torched many of the depositories where the colonists had placed copies of those documents. The European Royal Family owned the New York Confederate Congress University Publishing Company, which they used, after the war, to transpose the original documents and substitute them with “enumerated Constitution Form” versions without requiring public vote. These actions transformed the Republican-style colonies into “political states.” The 1787 Northwest Territorial Ordinance (Compact of the Confederate Congress of New York calling only itself and its “representatives” individually and collectively “The United States”) was also an enumerated Constitution as was the 1777 Articles of Confederation.<sup>[865]</sup>

During the War of 1812, the British torched the buildings that housed the original Colonial and National documents that served as the foundation of the government from 1774 to 1812. The only document that survived the “fire in the archives” was the Unanimous Colonial Declaration of July 4, 1776. The New York Confederate Congress and University Company library, now known as the New York Public Library, conveniently supplied the revised documents and records.<sup>[866]</sup> The New York Public Library holds other interesting documents such as the meeting minutes of the elite New York Tammany Society, initially called the Sons of Liberty.

In 1812, during the confusion inherent in any war, treacherous individuals replaced the original American

Colonial “Declarative Republican Documents and Records” with the European Royal Family Charters disguised as “Enumerated Transition Constitutions.” They retained a majority of the Colonial Declaration language in order to create credibility for their counterfeit. The Royal University Publishing House Company previously prepared the replacement documents, a deception that traitorous people, since then, systematically and methodically concealed. Recently, with new research technology, documentary historians have discovered the enormous pretext perpetrated against the American People and the victims of constant warfare throughout the world. The corporation, calling itself “The United States,” complete with a “private constitution” has collaborated with a network of hundreds of other corporations while pretending to function as the original legitimate government. [\[867\]](#)

The “select members” who participated in this treasonous bait and switch of the original documents belonged to the New York Confederate Congress University Legislative Council. Individuals elected these “select members” to American Congressional Seats or the elite appointed well-connected people as Judges. The majority of the individuals who seek political office currently receive their education at prestigious universities. The founders determined, as indicated in the original Thirteenth Amendment, that people who received a “degree of University” possessed a “Title of European Royal Family Nobility.”<sup>[868]</sup>

## **The Monroe Doctrine, Manifest Colonization**

James Monroe (1758-1831) was the fifth President of the United States (1817-1825). He was the last Founding Father, the last one from Virginia and from the Republican camp elected as U.S. President. Monroe studied law under Jefferson (1780-1783), and then served, along with Jefferson in the Continental Congress. He was an anti-Federalist delegate to the Virginia convention when they deliberated the ratification of the Supreme Republican Declaration of the United American Colonies later called the United States Constitution. Monroe rejected ratification as he claimed it permitted the national government to exercise too much authority over the states. In 1790, the people elected him to the Senate. He was Governor of Virginia (1799-1802) and later he helped to negotiate the Louisiana Purchase in 1803.

During the War of 1812, Monroe was the Secretary of State (1811-1814) and the Secretary of War (1814-1815) under President James Madison (1809-1817). After the Federalist Party’s influence diminished, the citizens elected Monroe U.S. President in 1816, with over 80% of the electoral vote. Under Monroe (1817-1825), nationalism increased throughout the country and partisan tensions decreased. During his presidency, the economy also suffered the Panic of 1819. People in the nation fiercely debated whether to admit the Missouri Territory in 1820. The citizens re-elected Monroe for a second term. He is famous for the Monroe Doctrine of December 2, 1823, which asserted that the United States would not abide additional European intervention in the Americas. The Monroe Doctrine established America’s initial foreign policy. Monroe retired from public life in 1825 and died in New York City on July 4, 1831.

Following the Adams-Onís Treaty or Transcontinental Treaty, concluded on February 22, 1819 and proclaimed on February 22, 1821, John Quincy Adams said he “considered this hemisphere closed to any new European colonial establishments.”<sup>[869]</sup> Officials in Washington established a commission (1821-1824) to manage U.S. claims against Spain. Attorneys Daniel Webster, William Wirt and others represented petitioners before the commission. In three years, commission officials evaluated 1,859 claims, associated with over 720 incidents and distributed \$5 million. Some members of Congress, because of the treaty, wanted to reduce the military budget and reject Secretary of War John C. Calhoun’s plans to modernize and expand the army. Both sides honored the Adams-Onís Treaty until the U.S. replaced it with the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo on February 2, 1848, after the U.S. defeated Mexico.

John Quincy Adams applied the ideas later contained in the Monroe Doctrine to the Northwest, Washington and Oregon and adjacent territory, in July 1823. He declared that no European nation “should entertain the project of settling a Colony on the Northwest coast of America – That the United States should form establishments there with views of absolute territorial right, and inland communication is not only to be expected, but is pointed out by the finger of Nature, and has been for years a subject of serious deliberation in Congress.” Adams was emphasizing the American concept of an “absolute territorial right” in Oregon based on the Discovery Doctrine and later the ideas of Manifest Destiny.<sup>[870]</sup>

Secretary of State under James Monroe, John Quincy Adams authored the Monroe Doctrine (December 2, 1823) and used the words “destiny” and “manifestation” in the same sentence, which presumably later inspired John O’Sullivan, a graduate of Columbia College (Class of 1831) and a member of the

Philolexian Society, to coin the phrase “manifest destiny.”<sup>[871]</sup> O’Sullivan was a New York journalist, a lawyer and founder and editor of the *Democratic Review*, a periodical he published from 1837 to 1859. In 1845, O’Sullivan’s concept of “manifest destiny,” expressed the idea that America’s dominion should reach from sea to shining sea. He was convinced that the entire continent should belong to Americans as members of a superior race and advocated the takeover of the Mexican territory and the occupation of California.<sup>[872]</sup>

Others, like Josiah Strong, Reverend John H. Barrows, and Reverend John Brandt, supposed that the Anglo-Saxons were destined to replace the so-called inferior races. Strong directed a group of home missionaries and was a popular speaker and author who focused extensively on racial superiority and expansionism. Reverend Barrows said, “God has placed us like Israel of old, in the center of nations, ... while to the west of us is that Asiatic world of immeasurable greatness which when awakened out of sleep, will combine with America to make the Pacific Ocean the chief highway of the world’s commerce ... and wherever on pagan shores the voice of the American missionary and teacher is heard, there is fulfilled the manifest destiny of the Christian republic.”<sup>[873]</sup>

Numerous writers, to justify America’s imperialistic warfare, have repeatedly used the so-called Secret Treaty of Verona, allegedly executed on November 22, 1822. However, Theodore R. Schellenberg (1903-1970) has proven through exhaustive documentation that the treaty is a flagrant fabrication, conveniently used in conjunction with the Monroe Doctrine. After the Napoleonic wars, the European powers, allegedly to create international cooperation, established the Quadruple or Holy Alliance on November 20, 1815 at the conclusion of the Congress of Vienna, an earlier model for the League of Nations and the United Nations. In the sixth article, they provided for periodic reunions to consider any issues that might interfere with the existing peace. Officials from Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia signed the Quadruple Alliance. French officials later signed it at the Verona Congress in November 1819 and allegedly, at that time, so people argue, secured the verbal support of officials from Austria, Russia and Prussia for an invasion of Spain and Portugal.<sup>[874]</sup>

British journalists, especially those associated with London’s *Morning Chronicle*, endlessly speculated about the course of continental events. During April and May 1823, the newspaper reported the concentration of “enormous” Russian forces per “arrangements made at Verona” and an alliance of that faction and the Holy Alliance. However, it quickly became evident that Russia did not intend to provide armed assistance to France. Therefore, on June 11, 1823, the *Morning Chronicle* published the Secret Treaty of Verona, supposedly received from a correspondent, to explain why the newspaper’s predictions failed to materialize. It was obvious, at the time, that the spurious document was a blatant invention due to its internal evidences and questionable structure.<sup>[875]</sup>

On the day of its appearance the signatory powers who supposedly signed the document, did not even contest the obvious misrepresentation of a certified record feeling it was not worthy of a serious refutation. The London *Sun* printed a copy of the so-called authentic document just to demonstrate “how easily the most clumsy fabrications may be palmed, even upon people of sense, when their judgment has been warped by the heat of political animosities.” Further, the *Sun* reported, “One would almost believe that the Correspondent of the *Chronicle* was a humorist, who had adopted this method of trying the extent of his friend’s credulity.”<sup>[876]</sup>

After the editor of the Paris *Pilote* reprinted the treaty, the authorities, under France’s press law of March 13, 1822, sentenced him to a month in prison, fined him two thousand francs, and suspended him from the newspaper for fifteen days for inciting the citizen’s hatred against their government. London’s *Morning Chronicle*, on July 9, 1823, tried to attribute the source to the *Pilote*’s own government sources to give themselves much needed credibility. Copies of the treaty were widely disseminated in the U.S. The

editors of some New York newspapers initially printed the story on July 24, 1824 followed by papers in Louisiana, Baltimore Washington, and Philadelphia. However, some of the better-informed, more astute editors who had closely scrutinized European newspapers and noted the doubts about the story's authenticity rejected the account of the secret treaty and did not publish it.<sup>[877]</sup>

The American public had previously questioned the so-called Holy Alliance, which had the same characteristics imputed in the newspaper article. Some newspapers later asserted that the treaty might have been a fabrication. In 1834, Jonathan Elliott (1784-1846), an American historian, published it in *The American Diplomatic Code*, one of the two collections of documents associated with the documents relating to the early American republic. This only perpetuated the spurious document. George Bancroft challenged the document but Elliott died before he could respond.<sup>[878]</sup>

The treaty faded from history but like document gravediggers, people have dug up the bogus treaty numerous times only to have it soundly refuted by many of the most informed participants at the Verona Congress. In 1894, Harvard Professor, Dr. Freeman Snow, reprinted the treaty in *Treaties and Topics in American Diplomacy*, without any indication of its original questionable newspaper source.<sup>[879]</sup> Thus, the treaty acquired unwarranted credibility, given Snow's position. The most regrettable use of the document is its exaggerated exploitation with regard to the Monroe Doctrine. Critical documentary historians have evaluated and discredited the treaty. Yet, people have used the treaty, whether a deception or a reality, to interpret the Monroe Doctrine as a nationalistic militaristic policy.<sup>[880]</sup>

Henry Cabot Lodge, a Harvard History professor, said that the foundation of the Monroe Doctrine relies on the vital law of self-preservation. Lodge and other U.S. expansionists endorsed Charles Darwin's evolution theory of 1859 and thought it was right and appropriate for the U.S. to become the strongest, most powerful and most dominating of all the nations. Lodge inculcated his students with that notion and later as a senator, he adamantly promoted those same convictions to fellow politicians in every speech and in all of his writings. He warned that since the great powers were "rapidly absorbing for their future expansion and their present defense all the waste places of the earth, the United States must not fall out of the line of march."<sup>[881]</sup>

In 1915, Reverend Brandt, Disciples of Christ minister, published the book, *Anglo-Saxon Supremacy or Race Contributions to Civilization*, which promoted the superiority of the Anglo-Saxons who should have special entitlements in a survival of the fittest world. Brandt tells his readers, "The Anglo-Saxon home is conducive to good morals. It becomes a garden of virtue, a planting ground of morality and a nursery of religion. Seeds of morality are sown in the home to spring up to bless humanity."<sup>[882]</sup>

Robert Latham Owen (1856-1947), a Freemason and a Knights Templar, and Chairman of the U.S. Senate Committee on Banking and Currency was closely linked to Wall Street interests. Owen, son of the president of the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad, sponsored the Federal Reserve Act of 1913, known as the Glass-Owen Bill, which created the Federal Reserve System. After the Federal Reserve entrenched itself into the economic fabric of the country, like so many contemporary politicians, he purportedly repudiated the Federal Reserve, to distance himself in order to win favor with his constituents.

Owen introduced the spurious Secret Treaty of Verona into the Congressional Record of the Senate on April 25, 1916. Acting for the bankers, he pushed Woodrow Wilson for official recognition of Soviet Russia on January 22, 1918, which opened that country for commercial exploitation.<sup>[883]</sup> He exposed what purportedly was a Secret Verona Treaty whose stipulations called for the destruction of all representative governments, the suppression of the press and the implied infiltration of organized religion. Owen states that this treaty, when discovered, generated the Monroe Doctrine dated December 2, 1823. He used this expository credibility-building platform to introduce, at the end of his speech, where people would remember his views about the equality of women. Emancipation and equality are often rhetorical devices

to instigate gender division.

## **The Railroad Trust**

In the 1830s, New England's textile mills were the largest U.S. industry. Though it was a huge industry, massive financing was unnecessary. Conversely, railroad construction demanded a huge capital investment. Yet, by 1850, sixteen railroads operated over 250 miles of track. Capitalization for these railroads was \$10 to \$20 million which necessitated the support of major investors in the U.S. Europeans also invested in America's railroad industry. Promoters preferred to raise capital by selling stock, which meant yielding some corporate control but they avoided the huge annual interest payments associated with loans. Investors also used bonds to fund the U.S. railroads, which put a lien on the firm's assets but required a smaller annual interest payment.<sup>[884]</sup>

Erastus Corning, a leading iron dealer, recognized the personal investment value of the railroads, because of their use of iron. He maneuvered a seat on the board of the Utica & Schenectady Railroad and invested in the railroad when the state first chartered it on April 29, 1833. He soon became its president and managed it for twenty years. He also invested in the Mohawk & Hudson Railroad, which started operations on September 24, 1831, and the Mohawk Valley Railroad, chartered on January 21, 1851. About a dozen small railroad companies merged on May 17, 1853 to form America's largest corporation, at the time, the New York Central. Corning was manager of the New York Central (1853-1867) when Cornelius Vanderbilt, the railroad tycoon took it over.

Corning, co-founder of the Albany State Bank, also had investments in other banks and insurance companies. He allegedly, according to Corning family stories, offered Abraham Lincoln a high-paying job as counsel to the New York Central Railroad but he declined. Lincoln, a lawyer and railroad lobbyist, maintained a relationship with the elite in Chicago, New York and New England. Many of these individuals, former Whigs (party of the moneyed elite that functioned from 1833 to 1856) like Lincoln, supported infrastructure improvements such as canals, railroads, and financing. Industrialists, because of their growing manufacturing monopolies, easily seized government power. The seat of government shifted from Washington to Wall Street while ethical principles shifted from safeguarding individual liberties to protecting the industrialists and their profitable ventures.<sup>[885]</sup> Lincoln was one of the top railroad industry advocates. He also favored infrastructure improvements, which began in Illinois, his home state, in the early 1830s because of his urging.

At the request of the citizens of Aurora and Batavia, Illinois, the state granted a charter for the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad, through an act of the Illinois General Assembly on October 2, 1848. The railroad began operations on February 12, 1849 in Aurora, Illinois. The state of Illinois granted the railroad 2.8 million acres to build the railroad. Between 1870 and 1880, the railroad sold two million acres to 20,000 people in Missouri, Iowa, and Nebraska. Initially, the federal government granted land to the state and then the state could judiciously, or not, grant land to interested parties. The federal government soon appropriated direct state land grants to private parties. Richard Olney, an attorney for Boston's corporate aristocracy, was general counsel for the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad in the late 1880s. With his expertise, the railroad was able to oppose state regulations and excessive rates.<sup>[886]</sup>

Vice President Millard Fillmore, part of the New York political machine and author of the protectionist Tariff of 1842, assumed office when Zachary Taylor died unexpectedly on July 9, 1850. On September 20, 1850, Fillmore approved the initial Congressional land grant to the Illinois Central Railroad backed by Abraham Lincoln, Stephen Douglas and others. This landmark grant opened the floodgates of corruption with lavish land grants directly to railroads. On March 1, 1853, Fillmore also approved an amendment to fund a survey from the Mississippi to the Pacific Ocean.<sup>[887]</sup> The survey's purpose was to

determine “the most practicable and economical route for a railroad from the Mississippi River to the Pacific Ocean.”<sup>[888]</sup>

Lincoln was an attorney for the Illinois Central Railroad from the time of its inception (1849) until his presidency. George B. McClellan, later a Union general, was the vice president of the Illinois Central whose board of directors was in New York. Lincoln represented the Chicago and Alton, Ohio and Mississippi and Rock Island railroads and was one of the most prominent attorneys in the industry.<sup>[889]</sup> The Illinois Assembly chartered the Illinois Central Railroad, a recipient of the first federal land grant, on February 10, 1851. Robert Schuyler was its first president.

Robert Schuyler, headquartered in New York, asked a Mr. Rantoul for a report on the commercial value, potential settlement, population, and the comparative land prices between Illinois and the two previously settled states of Ohio and Indiana. On September 1, 1851, Rantoul supplied the data, a thirty-six page report. He wrote, “The eleven millions of acres of land not yet taken up in Illinois would supply a population of a little more than four hundred thousand persons with twenty-eight acres each, the quantity thus far in Illinois.”<sup>[890]</sup> The Chicago-based Illinois Central Railroad (IC) soon began advertising and selling lands along its route throughout central and southern Illinois, attracting thousands of settlers.

Schuyler was also the president and transfer agent of the New Haven and Harlem Railroads and the grandson of Revolutionary War General Philip Schuyler, father-in-law of Alexander Hamilton. Schuyler, who owned a brokerage house, was a very powerful and high-ranking member of the New York elite. He associated with the Vanderbilts, the Belmonts and others. After July 1854, he fled to Canada because of conspicuous shortages, the sale of bogus stock (\$2 million), forgeries, misappropriations and thefts from private accounts.<sup>[891]</sup>

America had almost 9,000 miles of railroad track by 1852, situated primarily in the north. The South had the South Carolina Railroad with a 136-mile line from Charleston to Hamburg, South Carolina, in operation since 1833. The South also had the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, which the local government chartered in 1831. By contrast, England had only 6,500 miles of railroad track.<sup>[892]</sup>

The Congress Select Committee on the Pacific Railroad and Telegraph passed a bill on August 16, 1856, during Pierce’s presidency, allowing for the construction of railroad lines and telegraphic communication between the Atlantic and Pacific coasts. The confidential report associated with the act elaborated on the discovery of gold in California and its commercial value and the necessity of internal improvements and commercialization.<sup>[893]</sup> Industrialists and globalists view countries as commercial opportunities, not as sovereign nations inhabited by people with inherent rights.

Henry Farnam and Joseph E. Sheffield collaborated to build the Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific Railroad with Farnam as president. Dr. Thomas C. Durant was a broker for Farnam’s railroad. Durant and Farnam created a new contracting company, Farnam and Durant. They obtained financing and landed the job of constructing the newly chartered (1853) Mississippi and Missouri Railroad (M&M). Durant built his fortune by manipulating M&M stock. On May 15, 1856, Congress granted the state of Iowa sufficient land to build four small internal railways. The first railroad would run from Davenport, on the Mississippi River, to Council Bluffs on the Missouri River, a distance of 298 miles.

M&M obtained a government permit to erect a bridge over the Mississippi River despite strong opposition from the riverboat owners. They completed the bridge in April 1856. Sometime later, a steamboat captain, known to have a drinking problem, inadvertently crashed into part of the bridge and totally demolished his company’s boat. On May 7, 1858, James Ward, part owner of the steamboat company filed a bill in the district court, appealing for an abatement of the Rock Island Bridge over the Mississippi River, saying it was a public nuisance. Since its completion, more than 1,700 steamboats had

passed through the draw without an incident.<sup>[894]</sup> Durant hired Lincoln to represent the railroad. Robert E. Lee, an engineer, assisted him. They won the case by proving that the steamboat navigators were at fault.<sup>[895]</sup>

In 1860, Lincoln and his friend and political advisor, Norman B. Judd, a Chicago attorney arranged to give discount travel rates to anyone who would come to Chicago for the Republican national convention, May 16-18, 1860. Lincoln appointed many railroad officials to his administration including Thomas A. Scott of the Pennsylvania Railroad. Lincoln granted more land to railroads than any other president did.<sup>[896]</sup> He spent \$100,000 on his campaign, almost twice as much as his opponent Stephen Douglas.<sup>[897]</sup> In late 1859, elite industrialists invited Lincoln to speak in New York City. His Cooper Union speech, on February 27, 1860, before his nomination, made him an overnight political star. Thurlow Weed, New York Republican boss, raised money for Lincoln's campaign by maneuvering the passage of railroad bills in return for "legislative grants" from railroad companies. The Republican Party Platform for 1860 stated, "A railroad to the Pacific ocean is imperatively demanded by the interests of the whole country, which the Federal Government ought to render immediate and efficient aid in its construction."

Lincoln hoped that the government would ultimately appreciate the commercial benefits of a transcontinental railroad. Lincoln, while on a trip to Council Bluffs with Judd, invested in several town lots. Judd had acquired the lots from the Chicago and Rock Island Railroad. On March 4, 1861, President Lincoln appointed Judd as the Minister to Berlin, the first appointment that he made.<sup>[898]</sup> Grenville Dodge previously told Lincoln that Council Bluffs would be an appropriate starting location for a transcontinental railroad.<sup>[899]</sup> Dodge, an engineer, helped survey the Illinois Central Railroad.<sup>[900]</sup> He became a Union Army officer and participated with Sherman in the Atlanta campaign. Dodge shared valuable information with Durant who made a fortune smuggling contraband cotton from the south.

Lincoln and his advisors considered it necessary to construct the transcontinental railroad in order for the Union to retain the western section of the country and its valuable resources. In July 1861, he persuaded Congress to write legislation to build the taxpayer-funded Union Pacific Railroad. Lincoln, according to the bill, would appoint the directors and commissioners. Congress also authorized him to select the starting point for the Union Pacific, part of the transcontinental railroad, which would merge with the Central Pacific Railroad at Promontory Summit, Utah, in 1869. He naturally chose Council Bluffs, Iowa, where he already owned strategically located land. Dodge, who designed the Illinois Central Railroad, became its chief engineer.<sup>[901]</sup>

Lincoln signed the railroad bill on July 1, 1862 (12 Stat. 489, Ch. 120) for "the construction of a railroad and telegraph line from the Missouri river to the Pacific ocean, and to secure to the government the use of the same for postal, military, and other purposes." The Crédit Mobilier scandal exploited the loopholes in this law. Officials made huge land grants and issued 6%, 30-year U.S. Government Bonds to the Union Pacific Railroad and Central Pacific Railroad for the construction of a transcontinental railroad. The Union Pacific incorporated on July 1, 1862. Dr. Thomas C. Durant was its dominant stockholder.

The Central Pacific Railroad and Union Pacific Railroad received grants twenty miles wide, ten miles on both sides, from the Missouri River on the west boundary of the State of Iowa to the Pacific Ocean, through Nebraska, Wyoming, Utah, Nevada, and California. The Northern Pacific Road received a grant of land forty miles in width from some point in the State of Minnesota to the Pacific Ocean.<sup>[902]</sup> The Union Pacific Railroad got over eleven million acres and \$27 million in bonds. The Central Pacific got eight million acres and \$24 million in bonds.

William Butler Ogden, a former New Yorker, served as Chicago's first mayor. He was a big advocate for a transcontinental railroad and became the first president of the Union Pacific Railroad, because of his political connections. He lost a huge amount of personal possessions in the Great Chicago Fire on

October 8, 1871. His lumber company in Peshtigo, Wisconsin, coincidentally burned the same day.

## The Central Pacific Railroad and Cheap Labor

Theodore D. Judah, civil and railroad engineer, lobbyist, railroader and surveyor, worked to construct the Niagara Gorge Railroad; he also assisted in the building of the Erie Canal, but he envisioned a transcontinental railroad across America, from the Atlantic to the Pacific. In 1854, Judah went to California to facilitate a 21-mile railway for a mine operator. Some developers hired him to survey a possible road from Sacramento to the Nevada silver mines. Instead of a road, he argued that a railroad would be more beneficial. However, the wagon company was not interested so he investigated this project on his own. Judah wrote *A Practical Plan for Building the Pacific Railroad*, a pamphlet describing his vision of a Sierra Nevada railroad route. Dr. Daniel Strong, of Dutch Flat, California, almost seventy miles east of Sacramento, read Judah's pamphlet and then proposed an alternative route in order to avoid the existing but precarious Donner Summit route.

In the fall of 1860, Dr. Strong and Judah had traveled across the mountains on the prospective route of the Central Pacific Railroad, the California to Utah portion of the Transcontinental Railroad. They agreed to create a corporation and Judah wrote the Articles of Association of the Central Pacific Railroad of California, which became part of the Southern Pacific System. On November 10, 1860, he published a pamphlet, *Central Pacific Railroad to California* in San Francisco.<sup>[903]</sup> Strong and Judah obtained subscriptions totaling about \$116,500. Judah returned to Sacramento and arranged a meeting with the "big four," men who were willing to finance the railroad project, Leland Stanford, Collis P. Huntington, Mark Hopkins, and Charles Crocker. Other attendees were Dr. Strong, Lucius A. Booth, James Bailey, a jeweler, Cornelius Cole, later a congressman and senator from California, and B. F. Leete, one of Judah's surveyors. On April 30, 1861, the stockholders held an organizational meeting and on June 28, 1861, they incorporated the Central Pacific Railroad.<sup>[904]</sup>

Crocker's solution for a cheap workforce during the construction of the Central Pacific Railroad was Chinese laborers. During a period of four years, 3,000 Irishmen and more than 10,000 Chinese coolies labored in the oppressively sizzling desert and the freezing Sierra Mountains. Huntington especially appreciated the Chinese, who labored, seemingly tireless, for only \$1 a day, much less than what he paid for white men. Thus, he was a big advocate of unrestricted Chinese immigration. The successful completion of the transcontinental system was largely due to the Orientals.<sup>[905]</sup> James Harvey Strobbridge, who supervised the construction on the Central Pacific, was a hard-driving, ruthless taskmaster. He used at least 15,000 Chinese workers who agents imported from southern China. Management grouped the Chinese, essentially slave labor, into gangs of approximately fifty-five who a white Irish foreman supervised. They received from \$30 to \$35 a month from which they had to pay their own board.<sup>[906]</sup> The project began in 1863 and it ultimately connected to the Union Pacific Railroad at Promontory, Utah on May 10, 1869.

## Crédit Mobilier of America

George Francis Train and other officers of the Union Pacific Railroad created the Crédit Mobilier of America, a big moneymaking scheme. Durant masterminded the plan. Crédit Mobilier, a construction company façade, was supposedly an impartial company chosen by Union Pacific to construct a portion of the transcontinental railroad, which workers were unable to complete because of the war. They charged the government an exorbitant \$72 million for a line that was only worth \$53 million.

In 1865, Massachusetts Congressman Oakes Ames, a member of the House committee on railroads, replaced Dr. William Coles Keeter as head of Crédit Mobilier. Ames, a wealthy shovel manufacturer, helped establish the Republican Party in Massachusetts. He allowed members of Congress to purchase

face-value shares. Then these officials enacted law to acquire the government funds to fund the Crédit Mobilier's inflated charges. Crédit Mobilier officials *gave* stocks to more than thirty politicians, who were always willing to trade favors for financial benefits.

In 1872 and 1873, some members of Congress who were more ethical than most, investigated the Crédit Mobilier and Ames. The members of Congress who had purchased stock claimed they had accidentally participated while others denied their involvement. The Poland Committee decided that the members were guilty and suggested that Ames should leave Congress. He maintained his innocence and the accommodating House reversed the penalty. Interestingly, the committee found him guilty of bribery but found Schuyler Colfax, later U.S. Vice President and James A. Garfield, later U.S. President, and other Senators and Representatives who had accepted the bribes not guilty.<sup>[907]</sup>

Lincoln had chartered the Northern Pacific Railroad on July 2, 1864, the first northern transcontinental railroad that would connect the Great Lakes with Puget Sound. In 1870, financier Jay Cooke invested funds in the company. The railroad received a forty-mile wide grant for land through North Dakota, Minnesota, Montana, Idaho and Washington totaling forty-seven million acres. Senator Allison of Iowa, Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations and Joe Cannon, Representative from Illinois, a banker and lawyer and Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations in the House perpetrated this fraud upon U.S. citizens.<sup>[908]</sup>

## Ferdinand Heinrich Gustav Hilgard – Henry Villard

In 1853 Bavarian native Ferdinand Heinrich Gustav Hilgard, a nephew of two of the leaders of the 1848 German revolt, had immigrated to America and settled in Illinois where he became a journalist and editor, changing his name to Henry Villard. He covered the Lincoln-Douglas debates and the war for some large New York papers. He became friends with Lincoln and later accompanied the Union armies as a journalist. On January 3, 1866, he married Helen Frances Garrison, the daughter of William Lloyd Garrison, the famous abolitionist.

In 1871, Villard, who was overly ambitious, had pushed himself to the point that he suffered a physical breakdown and sought relief in Europe's spas where he met a group of Germans who had heavily invested in U.S. railroads. They selected him as their resident agent, from which he made a fortune.<sup>[909]</sup> After the Panic of 1873, Villard returned to the U.S. as their representative. His German investors included Werner von Siemens, an inventor and industrialist and founder of Telegraphen-Bauanstalt von Siemens & Halske on October 1, 1847. He built the world's first electric elevator in 1880. Additionally, Dr. Georg von Siemens (1839-1901), a founder and manager of the Deutsche Bank, a relative of Werner von Siemens, was an investor. Dr. von Siemens was a major owner of the Northern Pacific. They provided financing for Thomas Edison and the Edison General Electric Company. Dr. von Siemens later financed the railway extension from Berlin to Baghdad.

In 1886, Werner von Siemens authorized Villard to market his patents in the U.S. He envisioned direct sales of his patent or a partnership with an existing company. Villard, as president of the Edison Electric Light Company, together with Georg von Siemens of Deutsche Bank, intended to make a substantial investment of the German electrotechnical industry in Edison's company, created in 1889 as the result of a merger. Siemens wanted to introduce his electric railways and streetcars to the American market but U.S. railway construction companies circumvented that beneficial but competitive idea. In 1892, Edison General Electric merged with the Thomson-Houston Group to emerge as the General Electric Company, which forced Villard out. Consequently, the German investors withdrew.<sup>[910]</sup>

Prior to 1880, through Villard's interventions, the European creditors' holding company, the Oregon and Transcontinental Company controlled several transportation systems in Oregon. He gained controlling

interest in the Northern Pacific Railroad and became its president in 1881 and ultimately bought the *New York Post*. In 1881, he acquired the *New York Evening Post* and the *Nation*, founded by William Lloyd Garrison. Villard's son, Oswald Garrison Villard, a Harvard graduate, was a civil rights leader who helped organize the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People.<sup>[911]</sup> His oldest son, Henry Hilgard Villard, was the first male president of Planned Parenthood.

The Directors of the Northern Pacific during 1882 to 1884 were Frederick Billings, Ashbel H. Barney, John W. Ellis, Roswell G. Rolston, Robert Harris, Thomas F. Oakes, J. Pierpont Morgan, Henry Villard, and August Belmont, of New York; J. L. Stackpole and Benjamin F. Cheney, of Boston; and John C. Bullitt and Henry E. Johnston, of Philadelphia. Ashbel H. Barney was a founder of Wells, Fargo & Co. His son, Charles T. Barney, was William C. Whitney's brother-in-law. Billings and Rolston were directors of the Farmers Loan and Trust Company.<sup>[912]</sup> Jacob Henry Schiff originally came to the U.S. after Lincoln's War, arriving in New York City on August 6, 1865, as an agent of the European moneylenders to seize control of U.S. railroads. He ultimately sat on the boards of numerous corporations, including the National City Bank of New York, Equitable Life Assurance Society, Wells Fargo & Company, and the Union Pacific Railroad.

Jacob H. Schiff, January 10, 1847, in Frankfurt, embraced the occupation of his father, Moses Schiff, a Rothschild broker in Frankfurt. After he migrated to the U.S., he worked for Frank & Gans, New York brokers. In 1867, he created Budge, Schiff & Co. a brokerage firm that he liquidated in 1873. He returned to Europe and allied with some of the key German banking-houses. He then returned to the United States, where he joined the banking firm of Kuhn, Loeb & Co. in New York on January 1, 1875. Using his connections with the German banking house, Schiff attracted substantial German capital to American industry.<sup>[913]</sup>

Schiff's firm financially reorganized the Union Pacific Railroad in about 1897. In 1901, Kuhn, Loeb battled with the Great Northern Railway Company for the control of the Northern Pacific Railway, which provoked the panic on the stock exchange on May 9, 1901. Kuhn, Loeb & Co., under Schiff's management, became a leading influence in the railroad financial arena. The firm controlled over 22,000 miles of railway and \$1,321,000,000 in stock. He was instrumental in the formation of the Northern Securities Company. Industry moguls chose Schiff's firm to float the large stock issues of the Union Pacific, the Pennsylvania Railroad, the Baltimore and Ohio, the Norfolk and Western, and the Missouri Pacific railway companies. Additionally, his firm handled some financial matters for the Western Union Telegraph Company and others.<sup>[914]</sup>

Schiff affiliated himself with other industrial and commercial activities. He sat on the Board of Directors of the Union Pacific, the Baltimore and Ohio, the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy railway companies. Additionally, he sat on the boards of the Western Union Telegraph Company, the Equitable Life Assurance Society, the National Bank of Commerce and the National City Bank, the Morton Trust Company, the Columbia Bank, the Fifth Avenue Trust Company of New York and other trust companies in New York as well as in Philadelphia.<sup>[915]</sup>

## The Railroad Tycoons and the Bankers

In 1867, Cornelius Vanderbilt had seized the New York Central (NYC) and on November 1, 1869, he merged the NYC with his Hudson River Railroad to form the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad. Vanderbilt also owned the New York and Harlem Railroad, Lake Shore and Michigan Southern Railway, Canada Southern Railway and the Michigan Central Railroad. The New York Central built, leased, or merged with several other railroads, the Spuyten Duyvil and Port Morris Railroad, the Geneva and Lyons Railroad, and the Boston and Albany Railroad. By 1914, the Vanderbilts created the modern

NYC and controlled it until 1954.

In 1871, J. Pierpont Morgan and Philadelphia banker Anthony Drexel opened Drexel, Morgan & Co., a merchant bank in New York, an agent for European investors. They ultimately raised sufficient capital to support the U.S. industrial expansion. The Drexel-Morgan partnership was the nation's leading private domestic and foreign bank. In 1879, the firm sold William Vanderbilt's New York Central Railroad stock without driving down the share price, the biggest block of stock ever offered before that time. This transaction established Morgan as a mobilizer of capital and wholesaler of securities and positioned his firm in close association with the railroad industry.<sup>[916]</sup> Vanderbilt owned 87% of the New York Central Railroad but wanted to diversify into other areas. Morgan sold 150,000 shares of Central for \$120 a share in England. Because he held the proxies for the new English shareholders, he got a seat on Central's board.<sup>[917]</sup>

U.S. railroads experienced rate wars throughout the late nineteenth century. Morgan viewed these wars as an opportune time to consolidate this portion of the transportation industry. He reorganized financially troubled railroads by decreasing their expenses, restructuring their debt, and putting their stock into trusts. He managed and appointed high-level executives who were loyal to him. He applied this "Morganization" process to the Northern Pacific, the Erie, the Reading and many other railroads. By the 1890s, he had an "integral role in approximately one-sixth of the track" in the U.S. He also managed and provided funds for the industrial mergers of General Electric, U.S. Steel and International Harvester.<sup>[918]</sup>

The Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill, March 3, 1875, approved by Carl Schurz, the Interior Secretary,<sup>[919]</sup> provided for the administration of vast areas of land within certain areas called forest reservations. However, changes were made in the bill in committee that allowed the railroads, which had already received 200 million acres of land, to exchange that land, in those allotted reservations, for the "very best land" that the government had remaining in the public domain. This exchange was worth about \$50 million to the railroads. Schurz, a former Marxist revolutionary, allowed it. They exchanged worthless desert land for more valuable land.<sup>[920]</sup>

In 1897, according to *The New York Times*, the president appointed a committee of five senators to investigate the theft of land by the railroad trust. They examined the issue of land patents to the Pacific Railroads. Senator Pettigrew also questioned the appropriations for public buildings, one for \$100,000 for a building in Salt Lake.<sup>[921]</sup>

Lincoln's War increased the North's economic power while the South lay in ruins. In 1870, there were thirty-eight million people living in the U.S., trying to recover from the horrific effects of the war. The 1873 Panic resulted in commercial failures, severe unemployment, and an increase in the number of tenant farmers. Yet, the U.S., as a whole, had more wealth than any other five nations combined. There were vast, undeveloped resources and sufficient land.<sup>[922]</sup> By 1873, both Baring and Rothschild provided loans to the U.S. In 1876, both Morgan and Rothschild again extended loans to the U.S. government as well as to some states that experienced an economic crisis.<sup>[923]</sup>

In 1889, the Federal Government owned millions of acres of valuable timber, mineral and agricultural land. Predatory attorneys representing private interests twisted existing laws and created new, self-serving legislation so their benefactors could seize prime, resource-rich land at the expense of the average citizen.

Overbuilding and higher construction costs in the mid-1880s created animosities between the railroad moguls. Morgan mediated between Vanderbilt's New York Central and the heads of the Pennsylvania Railroad to end their battle. He reorganized the Baltimore and Ohio, the Chesapeake and Ohio, the Erie, and many other major railroads. In the 1880s and 1890s, Schiff was also heavily involved in reorganizing

railroads. Morgan reorganized the Union Pacific Railroad as he completely distrusted Edward H. Harriman, its biggest stockholder. He was brilliant when it came to managing railroads and quickly revamped the almost insolvent Union Pacific into one of the most profitable railroads.<sup>[924]</sup> He amassed over \$60 million in a stock deal involving Union Pacific Railroad and Kuhn Loeb.

In 1901, Harriman viewed the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy as a threat to his territory and was determined to get control of the Burlington by seizing control of James Hill's Northern Pacific. Jacob H. Schiff quietly purchased a majority of the Northern Pacific preferred stock and held enough common stock to have an overall majority. Hill and Morgan, his banker, apparently did not anticipate the measures Harriman would take to meet his objectives.<sup>[925]</sup> On Monday morning, May 6, 1901, Hill cabled Morgan and got approval to purchase 150,000 shares of Northern Pacific common stock when the market opened at a cost of over \$15 million. A majority of the common stock might allow him sufficient time to retire the preferred stock and maintain management of the railroad. Morgan and Harriman together held 630,000 of the existing 800,000 common shares of Northern Pacific. The Morgan Bank purchased another 124,000 by the close of the market on Tuesday. There were only 46,000 shares remaining. However, the Northern Pacific amount for Monday and Tuesday totaled 539,000 shares. They sold the majority of the stock "short" which created a panic and drove the stock up to as much as \$1,000 per share. Harriman did not actually want control of Northern Pacific but merely wanted Northern Pacific and the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad to address his concerns. Accordingly, he acquired a seat on the board.<sup>[926]</sup>

However, competitors, James J. Hill, Edward H. Harriman, J. P. Morgan, John D. Rockefeller and others abandoned their individual differences and organized the Northern Securities Company as a railroad trust. They used this trust to control the Great Northern Railroad, the Northern Pacific Railroad, the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad along with smaller subsidiary roads.

Following the U.S. Steel merger, Carnegie and J. P. Morgan persuaded (or instructed) McKinley to appoint Philander Knox as his Attorney General. Anti-trust forces strongly opposed the appointment. Knox was required to prosecute anti-trust violations but those former clients had made him extremely wealthy. He ignored public pressure to investigate the huge conglomerate that he had recently created.<sup>[927]</sup> He stayed on as Attorney General under Roosevelt and continued to ignore the anti-trust violations of his former clients.

On February 19, 1902, the U.S. Department of Justice, on behalf of President Roosevelt, announced that it was filing a suit against the Northern Securities Company. Morgan was astonished that the government was suing under the Sherman Antitrust Act, to break up his new Northern Securities Company. He immediately went to Washington, to inquire why Roosevelt had not informed him of his intentions so that he could have arranged a quiet agreement.

However, lawyers designed the anti-trust regulations passed during Roosevelt's Administration to regulate rates, eliminate the competition, and control interstate commerce. The regulatory commissions, empowered with federal authority, were stacked with agents from the conglomerates that sought to eliminate competition. Knox, like Carnegie, believed that business should be regulated – other people's business. Knox persuaded Roosevelt to increase regulation, along with the anti-trust laws. He drafted federal statutes to benefit his former super-rich clients, giving them control over interstate commerce through price fixing. Regulations tempered competition by restraining trade, legal under the new federal enforcement commissions. Morgan and others had used these strategies before Knox. He became a U.S. Senator in 1904, appointed by Pennsylvania's governor to fill a vacant seat. The industrialists appreciated the way that he managed the anti-trust issues as Attorney General.<sup>[928]</sup>



# The Southern Scoundrels

## Andrew Jackson, Slave Owner and Planter

On February 13, 1789, Andrew Jackson (1767-1845), son of tenant farmers who left County Antrim, Ireland in April 1765,<sup>[929]</sup> wrote a letter of introduction for his like-minded opportunistic crony, Brigadier General Daniel Smith to Captain André Fagot, a French trader and Spanish militia captain from St. Louis. Fagot went to Nashville in an attempt to establish trade between New Orleans and Nashville. Because Indians had seized his last shipment, he wanted General Smith to convince Governor Rodríguez Miró to curtail the Indians in their activities.<sup>[930]</sup>

Allegedly, Jackson and Smith had no particular loyalties to the U.S. government, a short-lived entity in their opinion. Fagot wanted to place the western settlements under Spanish control. He offered to serve as an emissary to Americans who were dissatisfied or who might transfer whatever lingering loyalty they had to the U.S. to Esteban Rodríguez Miró y Sabater (1744-1795). People knew him as Rodríguez Miró, a Spanish army officer and governor of the Spanish provinces of Louisiana and Florida as of January 20, 1782. Historians refer to the events that followed as the “Spanish Conspiracy.”<sup>[931]</sup>

Actually, Daniel Smith already knew Fagot and considered using him as a messenger between Miró and the Cumberland (territory south of the Ohio River). However, Fagot had reported to Miró that many people in the Cumberland planned to secede from North Carolina and become part of Spain. Smith wrote to Miró and claimed that Fagot misrepresented the settlers’ intent. Yet, there is evidence, in letters and statements in 1789-1790, that James Robertson and John Sevier were contemplating joining with Spain. Perhaps, they were simply attempting to create a peaceful environment on their shared frontier. They also wanted access to the Mississippi and thought that by allowing the Spanish officials to think they intended to secede from the eastern states, they might gain that access.<sup>[932]</sup>

On October 27, 1795, Washington’s administration enacted Pinckney’s Treaty with Spain, which gave the U.S. navigation rights on the Mississippi River. Congress admitted Tennessee to the Union on June 1, 1796. The Senate expelled Senator William Blount, Constitutional delegate for North Carolina, from the Senate on July 8, 1797 for recruiting settlers and Creek and Cherokee Indian tribes to assist the British military to take over West Florida, formerly a British possession. Residents elected Andrew Jackson to Congress on September 26, 1797, the best place to pursue his personal objectives.

Blount, also known as the governor of the “territory south of the Ohio,”<sup>[933]</sup> and Jackson were close to Aaron Burr who left the Senate on March 3, 1797. Burr, financially backed by John Jacob Astor, had connections, by marriage, to high-level British officials. In 1799, Burr founded a New York City water company that also functioned as a bank due to some fine print in its charter. Alexander Hamilton, head of the Bank of New York attempted to obstruct his competitor. Ultimately, the water company obtained a state charter and eventually evolved into the Chase Manhattan Bank.<sup>[934]</sup> Burr was powerful in New York politics because of his affiliation with the Tammany Society, later referred to as Tammany Hall, New York’s Democrat political machine. Burr was Jefferson’s first term Vice President (1801-1805).

On July 11, 1804, Vice President Burr shot and killed Alexander Hamilton, political rival and son-in-law of Philip Schuyler, because he, not exactly a saint, criticized Burr publicly and purportedly had threatened to expose Burr’s treasonous activities. In 1805, Anthony Merry, the new British ambassador, notified London officials that Burr asked him for funding “to effect a Separation of the Western Part of the United States.”<sup>[935]</sup> Within a couple of months after the duel, Merry revealed evidence of Burr’s Conspiracy, in a coded letter to the British foreign minister, Lord Harrowby, “I have just received an offer from Mr. Burr...to lend his assistance to His Majesty’s Government in any Manner in which they may think fit to

employ him, particularly in endeavouring to effect a Separation of the Western Part of the United States from that which lies between the Atlantick and the Mountains, in its whole extent.”<sup>[936]</sup>

Edward Livingston, from a very wealthy, politically powerful New York family, a Burr crony and a U.S. Congressman from New York (1795-1801), and James Workman, a British agent, organized the Mexican Association of New Orleans whose purpose was to seize Louisiana and then conquer Mexico, then under Spain’s control. In May 1805, Burr spent a week at Jackson’s home collaborating on how to execute this seizure. Jackson, a Major General in the Tennessee militia, recruited mercenaries and obtained boats and supplies. Burr returned in August 1805 and again in September 1806. During his last visit, Jackson arranged a big social in Burr’s honor. In November 1806, Burr sent Jackson \$3,500 and further directions. Local citizens, a bit more loyal to the ideals that founded the country, uncovered the scheme so Jackson, to cover his treason, claimed that General James Wilkinson, the Louisiana Territory governor (1805-1807) had devised the plot.<sup>[937]</sup>

Wilkinson was, in fact, a paid agent of the Spanish Crown who had signed an expatriation declaration and swore allegiance, to the King of Spain in August 1787 when he met with Rodríguez Miró. Thereafter, Miró rewarded Wilkinson with 60,000 acres in the Yazoo lands near present-day Vicksburg, Mississippi. He continued to receive funds from Spain for several years. After his alliances with Spain, the U.S. government gave Wilkinson a senior position in the U.S. military. Officials, upon learning of his questionable activities, court-martialed him in 1811 but the people found him innocent.<sup>[938]</sup>

Officials caught and arrested Burr for treason while he was attempting to escape. Jackson, subpoenaed as a witness, gained popularity with Tory factions in the South when he accused nationalistic President Jefferson of cowardice and of persecuting Burr, a distraction from his own involvement. Burr’s friend, Congressman John Randolph, was the foreman of the grand jury.<sup>[939]</sup> The court subpoenaed Jackson to testify and on May 12, 1807, he left for Richmond. On June 25, he assured the court that Burr never intended to commit treason. In court, Jackson testified that General James Wilkinson was the real villain and Burr was innocent. According to author John Buchanan, Jackson was “so out of control that Burr’s defense lawyers decided to forgo his testimony at the jury trial.” John Randolph, the jury foreman wrote to James Monroe that regarding Jackson’s claims about Wilkinson being “a pensioner of Spain.” George Hay informed Jefferson, “General Jackson, of Tennessee, has been here ever since the 22nd denouncing Wilkinson in the coarsest terms in every company.” Jackson continued to accuse and denounce Wilkinson while defending Burr and calling Jefferson a persecutor which offended many people, especially James Madison, Secretary of State.<sup>[940]</sup> James Wilkinson, the star witness, conveniently failed to appear and the jury found Burr not guilty.<sup>[941]</sup>

Burr went to England with his assistant, Samuel Swartwout where he stayed with Jeremy Bentham, a radical political strategist and an influential teacher of utilitarianism. His students included James Mill, John Stuart Mill, and Robert Owen. Bentham was the godfather of John Stuart Mill (1806-1873).<sup>[942]</sup>

Jeremy Bentham helped the English to develop “four systems of bondage” perhaps to minimize their guilt for the condition of the pervasive poverty in the country – (1) Poor relief, (2) White slavery to the colonies, (3) the workhouse and (4) the factory system. England’s paupers, long ago stripped of their land, existed in abject poverty in the backstreets of the big cities; children as young as four worked in hazardous chemical factories, like the one owned by Josiah Wedgewood. Due to the unspeakable conditions and the appalling death rates of the indigent children placed in the workhouse, Bentham, a political economist, promoted his “scientific” theories for the proper “pauper administration” of what he called the “panopticon principle of construction.” His regimentation and “management of poor whites” created a “prison warehouse for the storage of that vexatious species of humanity, the White pauper.”<sup>[943]</sup>

The poverty-stricken poor, men, women and children suffered at the hands of the wealthy factory owners

who exploited the poor. Powerless men, women and children, without education, opportunity or hope squandered their lives away for a pittance. Robert H. Sherard wrote of the men employed in the production of alkali, “These men are the wasted alkali workers; toothless, asthmatic, hair-blind, used up ‘the cast-offs,’ as one man told me. He added, ‘This is the last stage before the workhouse.’”<sup>[944]</sup>

Unsurprisingly, Jeremy Bentham was an ardent Jackson supporter. Burr and Swartwout returned to New York in 1812 where the Treasury Secretary Albert Gallatin buried Burr’s legal issues and Burr returned to the practice of law. Swartwout became Jackson’s political aide in New York. The British Army attempted to invade New Orleans, Louisiana beginning on December 23, 1814, at the end of the War of 1812. This was the day before the U.S. and Britain signed the Treaty of Ghent, on December 24, 1814, to end the war. An ongoing battle ensued that finally ended on January 26, 1815. General Jackson’s troops had a decisive victory – 2,459 British troops were killed, wounded or missing while Jackson’s troops had 333 killed, wounded or missing. The British had twice as many soldiers as Jackson but they were not as skilled.

By 1820, Jackson, one of the founders of today’s Democrat Party, was a comparatively wealthy Tennessee plantation-owner with about 150 slaves at the Hermitage, by then a thousand acre plantation in Davidson County, near Nashville. His slaves planted and harvested cotton. He had married into a prominent local family, the Donelsons, and had connection to Tennessee’s conservative political faction. His military service made him a national political figure, a military hero and ostensibly an excellent presidential candidate in an emerging environment that justified warfare. He associated closely with the equally rich in Tennessee’s society who also intimately allied themselves to the two principal banks in the state.

Burr promoted Jackson for the U.S. presidency through Swartwout and Edward Livingston, as Burr’s character was in question. Swartwout counseled Jackson to oppose John Quincy Adams and Henry Clay, Adams’ Secretary of State. After Jackson’s election, he appointed Swartwout as the Collector of the Port of New York. Livingston was in Freemasonry’s upper echelons, the Grand High Priest of the General Grand Royal Arch Chapter of the United States after the death of Clinton DeWitt.<sup>[945]</sup> Jackson asked Livingston to be his Minister to France. However, in May 1829, he rejected the offer to go to France and instead became Jackson’s Secretary of State. Livingston had an international worldview and a strong affiliation for France but did not have the money to live in Paris.<sup>[946]</sup>

Martin Van Buren, associated with the Clintonian faction of the party, was deeply involved in Burr’s Tammany Hall politics. Burr and William P. Van Ness, an attorney, mentored Van Buren who then directed the powerful Albany Regency and became a U.S. Senator in 1821. Those who opposed the Regency often suffered negative consequences. The Regency selected political candidates and directed all political appointments at every level in accordance with the interests of Wall Street. Van Buren and August Belmont, the Rothschild financier, shaped the policies of the new Democrat Party. Burr and Van Buren promoted Jackson as a war hero. William Blount was also part of the small elite segment of society, who with their descendants, who control government policy using their wealth, family associations, and military force.

Several notable people, Aaron Burr, Albert Gallatin, Martin Van Buren, August Belmont, John Slidell, and Caleb Cushing, appeared to be serving as agents for the British in their respective communities of Boston, New York, and in the South following the American Revolution. They packaged Jackson, who was also pro-British, as a war hero. In January 1827, Van Buren wrote to Thomas Ritchie recommending a partnership between the wealthy southern planters and the wealthy pro-London-New York financiers. In April 1827, Ritchie and the Richmond political machine agreed to back Jackson who they portrayed as a protectionist in the north and as a champion of states’ rights in the south. The people elected Jackson in 1828 and Martin Van Buren became Secretary of State in February of 1829.<sup>[947]</sup> Attorney Andrew Jackson,

a Freemason, served two terms as president (1829-1837).

Like contemporary politics, he was not the “man of the people” that he pretended to be, nor did he champion the cause of the common people, despite his apologists depicting him as such in selectively edited historical texts as the “era of the common man.” He filled his administration with wealthy landed elites.<sup>[948]</sup> Arthur Schlesinger’s *The Age of Jackson* (1946) reinforced the Jackson deception and others, even in the so-called truth movement promote those perceptions. Pulitzer Prize winner Schlesinger (CFR), the Harvard-educated author of many propaganda pieces, had worked with Allan Dulles in the OSS, giving him numerous prominent contacts in Washington. They were both board members on the CIA-funded National Committee for a Free Europe. Schlesinger assisted W. Averell Harriman in the European Recovery fiasco that cost millions of U.S. dollars. He was also a member of the CIA-funded Congress for Cultural Freedom.<sup>[949]</sup>

## **Jackson’s Indian Policies, Making Room for Plantations**

In North Carolina, between 1600 and 1775, approximately 90% of the native population perished. Although the Cherokee and Catawba tribes fought a very bloody war with the Tuscarora Indians (1711-1712), the greatest number of deaths resulted from disease, especially smallpox, from which they had no natural immunity. Typhus and measles, European diseases, also plagued the Indian tribes. An incidence of smallpox could wipe out an entire village. One epidemic of smallpox killed thousands of Indians in 1738 and 1739.<sup>[950]</sup>

Following the French and Indian War (1754-1763), King George III forbade white settlement west of the Appalachian Mountains. However, some settlers, like Daniel Boone, disregarded the law as they had their eyes on the Cherokees’ land. They viewed the Indians as a hindrance that simply needed removal. Quite justifiably, the Cherokees detested the land-greedy settlers and chose to side with the British government when the revolution erupted. They viewed their choice as the surest way to stench the flow of white settlers. They believed the British would win and would certainly recognize and appreciate their loyalty and as a result, would prevent the settlers from moving west of the mountains and would surely stop the settlers from seizing their land. The Cherokees, as well as the other tribes in the Southeast, sided with the British against the Americans before the Revolutionary War. The Cherokee warriors hastily made their decisions regarding the war and allied with the British. Other tribes, already allied with the British, influenced their decision. However, the Cherokee warriors were anxious and launched their own attack against the settlers.<sup>[951]</sup>

By the American Revolution, there was just a fraction of the Indians remaining in eastern North Carolina. Most of them had died and the remainder resided in the western section of the state. The colonists provided the Indians with manufactured goods such as guns, ammunition, agricultural implements, and axes while the Indians supplied the colonists with furs and animals skins. The Indians, who needed guns for defense against other armed natives, were now very dependent upon that trade, had to travel further and further in order to find animals, and they often inadvertently encroached on land belonging to other tribes or colonists. Conflict between the British government and the colonists threatened to disrupt the trade. The Indians certainly could have chosen neutrality but the British promised them additional weapons while the colonists provided them with weapons but kept seizing their ancestral lands.<sup>[952]</sup>

In 1775, approximately 12,000 Cherokees lived in the mountainous regions of what is now North Carolina where several generations of their ancestors had lived. Although they spoke the Iroquois language, they lived so far apart that they actually spoke three separate dialects. Many resided in log cabins in what they called Middle Villages or Middle Towns in the backcountry where they raised crops, particularly corn. As the settlers pressed for additional land, they moved closer to the Cherokee

homeland.<sup>[953]</sup>

In June 1776, Nancy Ward, who was half-Indian and half white, warned the settlers that the Cherokees were preparing numerous assaults along the southern boundary. Therefore, settlers gathered to the forts – Fort Defiance, Fort Dobbs, Old Fort, and other places of refuge. In their absence, the Cherokee had torched their homes and crops and had killed forty North Carolina settlers by the end of July. The greatest battle occurred at Eaton’s Station, presently in Tennessee. The Cherokee’s main objective was to prevent the whites from encroaching on their land. The colonists responded by planning an extensive attack. They approved of what Thomas Jefferson wrote, “I hope that the Cherokees will now be driven beyond the Mississippi.”<sup>[954]</sup>

General Griffith Rutherford (1721-1805), during the Chickamauga Wars (1776–1794), with over 2,000 troops from North Carolina, went to the towns on the Oconaluftee, Tuckasegee, Hiwassee, and Tennessee Rivers. When they arrived at the Cherokee Middle Towns in mid-September, the Indians had already left their villages and had retreated and taken refuge in the mountains. Rutherford burned their villages and destroyed their food supplies and crops ready for the harvest.<sup>[955]</sup>

He and his men destroyed thirty-six Cherokee towns, desecrated their cornfields and either “killed or carried off” all of their livestock. The surviving Cherokees fled to the Smoky Mountains.<sup>[956]</sup>

Colonel Andrew Williamson with his South Carolina militia headed towards the Lower Towns with almost 2,000 troops. Then he and his men went to North Carolina and met with an ambush at Black Hole where they battled for two hours until the Cherokees retreated because they had depleted their ammunition. He allegedly “burnt every town, and destroyed all the corn from the Cherokee line down to the Middle settlement.” Generals Rutherford and Williamson then joined forces on September 23, to attack the Middle Towns. Their combined forces waged war and destruction without any opposition. Colonel Williams Christian, at approximately the same time, led another group of troops out of Virginia into the mountains where they torched more villages and crops. Hundreds of Cherokees went hungry that year. The combined troops torched the settlements and crops in the Middle settlements.<sup>[957]</sup> <sup>[958]</sup>

The Cherokees had fled higher into the mountains leaving villages, horses, cattle, dogs, hogs, and fowls and between “forty to fifty thousand bushels of corn and ten or fifteen thousand bushels of potatoes.” The U.S. troops destroyed all of it and then let the Creek Indians know that the same thing would befall them if they allied with the British. The Cherokees saw “their towns burned, their corn cut down, and their people driven into the woods to perish.”<sup>[959]</sup>

The Cherokees had lost more than fifty of their towns. The whites had cut down their orchards, destroyed their fields, killed their cattle and horses, and plundered their supplies of buckskin and other personal property. Further, the whites killed hundreds of Cherokees while hundreds more died of starvation and exposure. The whites captured many survivors and sold them into slavery. Some escaped and became fugitives in the mountains where they existed on acorns, chestnuts, and wild game.<sup>[960]</sup> Many returned and began rebuilding their homes and villages in the autumn of 1776 and desperately sought peace, through a treaty, with the whites, which they obtained in July 1777. However, according to the treaty, they had to relinquish additional land, return hostages and property. In return, the settlers would respect their property rights.<sup>[961]</sup>

The treaty did not resolve the hostilities as many of the settlers ignored the treaty while one group of young Cherokee warriors, led by Dragging Canoe, rejected the peace treaty. These warriors retreated farther into the interior of North Carolina and built villages, then became known as the Chickamaugas. In 1780, John Sevier and Arthur Campbell led a campaign against the Cherokee, burned seventeen of their villages, as well as some of the Chickamauga villages, and in the process killed twenty-nine Cherokees.

Sevier's group lost one man. Sevier's men destroyed all of the Indian's provisions making the survivors subject to famine. The Treaty of Greenville of August 3, 1795, following the Battle of Fallen Timbers, ended the Northwest Indian War with about a dozen tribes ceding some of their land in Ohio, Indiana and Illinois. By the 1800s, the Cherokees gradually surrendered their land in numerous treaties, only to have the settlers ignore them.<sup>[962]</sup>

In about 1820, there were approximately 17,000 Cherokee, 11,000 were in the East while 6,000 were west of the Mississippi River. Many had moved west between 1817 and 1819 following the treaty of 1817. Some had gone west as early as 1808-1809. In 1823, the Cherokees in the Valley Towns of North Carolina and the hills of Tennessee suffered from numerous diseases, including tuberculosis, measles, and smallpox which also afflicted them in 1824.<sup>[963]</sup>

In 1814, Andrew Jackson, always an aggressive proponent of forced Indian removal, had commanded the U.S. military forces during the removal of Creek Indians from 22,000,000 acres of fertile land in southern Georgia and central Alabama. In 1818, U.S. officials seized additional land in Spanish Florida. From 1814 to 1824, Jackson negotiated nine out of eleven treaties designed to exchange the Indian's fertile eastern lands for barren western lands. The victimized tribes only relented to appease the government in the hopes of retaining at least some of their land and to avoid continued brutality and persecution.<sup>[964]</sup>

On March 11, 1824, War Secretary John C. Calhoun, under James Monroe, created the Office of Indian Affairs without congressional authorization.<sup>[965]</sup> The War Department transferred jurisdiction for the agency to the Department of the Interior in 1849. The government directed agency officials to negotiate treaties, which were documents concocted to seize prime property, a process initiated by the British in colonial America in order to facilitate westward land seizure for settlement.

In the presidential elections of 1824, Lawyer John M. Berrien, friendly to the Bank of the United States, was a Jackson political opponent but still accepted the Attorney General position to perpetuate certain elite interests in Georgia and he supported Jackson's Indian Policy.<sup>[966]</sup> Princeton-educated Berrien was in the Georgia Senate (1822-1823) and was then Georgia's U.S. Senator (1824-1829). He and his father, a former New Jersey Supreme Court justice and Princeton University trustee, owned prosperous plantations and "owned" over 100 slaves. Judge Berrien was a Freemason who belonged to Solomon's Lodge. The younger Berrien had substantial connections to certain eastern business interests.<sup>[967]</sup>

John Adams, Jackson's antagonist, believed that state and federal governments should honor Indian treaties by purchasing rather than merely annexing (stealing) Indian lands. Adams, if elected, decided to repudiate and renegotiate the fraudulent treaty that stripped the Georgia Creek Indians of their land. Adams and Barbour rejected the forced removal of the Creek Indians. This outraged land-hungry Southerners, especially in Georgia. Jackson won those states in 1824 but lost the election.<sup>[968]</sup> He would win in 1828.

In 1815, a Cherokee boy had discovered gold in the Cherokee Nation, in northern Georgia. In 1828, individuals discovered more gold near present-day Dahlonega, Georgia. Consequently, late in 1828, the Georgia legislature enacted laws to "annex" those Cherokee lands to within the state's borders, effective as of June 1, 1830. The state surveyors divided these Cherokee lands into counties and "land lots" of 160 acres each, and further into "gold lots" of 40 acres. Then the state devised a public lottery in which each white citizen received a ticket for the distribution of the land. According to the legislation of 1828, the state of Georgia now had legal jurisdiction over the Cherokee region. The state voided all laws and customs that the Cherokee Nation had established. Thereafter the state would not permit any Cherokee or any person of Indian blood living within the "Indian country" to be a witness or a party to any suit that involved a white man. Almost immediately, armed prospectors invaded the Cherokee country, stole horses and cattle, and ejected the occupants from their homes.<sup>[969]</sup>

Princeton-educated John Forsyth, former Governor of Georgia (1827-1829), became a Senator in 1829. During his governorship, he spent considerable energy promoting Cherokee removal.<sup>[970]</sup> Forsyth's father was a member of the Society of Cincinnati and a prominent Freemason, the Master of the Lodge Columbia and Deputy Grand Master for the state of Georgia.

Jackson's War Secretary was his close friend John H. Eaton, a former Tennessee attorney and wealthy land speculator who was a U.S. Senator (1818-1829). He had ties to one of the larger Tennessee state banks. There was a Cabinet shake-up in 1831 and Jackson replaced Eaton with attorney Lewis Cass, the longtime (1813-1831) governor of the Michigan territory. Cass had acquired a huge fortune through his law practice and his Detroit land deals.<sup>[971]</sup> However, before Eaton left, he quickly implemented Jackson's removal orders perpetrated against the Cherokees. On April 18, 1829, he wrote a letter to John Ross, Richard Taylor, Edward Gunter, and William S. Coody, who comprised the Cherokee delegation who had argued for their right to remain where they were.<sup>[972]</sup>

Congress passed the Indian Removal Act, which allocated the exchange of Indian lands in any of the states or territory, but particularly in the southern states, for lands west of the Mississippi River and for the immediate removal of Indians to the west. In 1830, the population of the U.S. was 12.87 million and it covered 1,754.6 thousand square miles, of which only 632.7 thousand square miles were "settled," inhabited by two or more persons per square mile.<sup>[973]</sup>

By 1818, the Indians had ceded the majority of their lands in those states. Additionally, the Indian Removal Act, signed by Jackson on May 26, 1830, compelled Indians to cede more land with the stipulation that Indians receive small tracts of reserved land west of the Mississippi. Congressman Davy Crockett was morally outraged over Jackson's preferred project, the Indian removal bill. He disassociated from the Jackson political machine during the remainder of his first term. That bill appropriated \$500,000 to relocate Indians from their ancestral lands into the Indian Territory (Oklahoma). Though it was a travesty against basic decency and humanity, the bill was popular with Crockett's constituents. He viewed removal as immoral and had adamantly opposed the measure on May 19, 1830. Jackson made certain that Crockett's constituents had ready access to the speech. Nevertheless, Crockett retained his seat in Congress and defeated the president's selected replacement.<sup>[974]</sup>

The Indian Removal Act provided for "an exchange of lands with any of the Indians residing in any of the states and territories, and for their removal west of the river Mississippi." Jackson used the act as a foundation to set in motion the mass forced relocations of the Creek, Cherokee, Choctaw, Chickasaw, Seminole and scores of other Indian nations located east of the Mississippi during the 1830s. This was in defiance of a Supreme Court opinion that the U.S. had no legal basis. The idea was to "clear" the native population from the entire region east of the Mississippi, opening it up for the exclusive use and occupancy of Euro-Americans and their black slaves. The government deposited the survivors of these forced relocations in the "Permanent Indian Territory" of Oklahoma, an area belonging to other indigenous nations.<sup>[975]</sup>

The U.S. government and the state of Georgia pressured the Cherokee Nation to cede their remaining lands and relocate west of the Mississippi River. The Indians resisted this legalized seizure of their land. Officials of the Georgia militia arrested Samuel A. Worcester, a missionary living peacefully among the Cherokee when he refused to swear to abide by the laws of the state of Georgia. He believed, along with the Cherokees, that state officials could not legally dictate law to the Cherokee Nation, which was sovereign. He took the case to the United States Supreme Court, which agreed with him and the Cherokees. However, Georgia officials repudiated the court's decision and declined to release Worcester. President Jackson reportedly responded, "John Marshall has made his decision; now let him enforce it."<sup>[976]</sup>

Two court cases ultimately ended up before Chief Justice John Marshall of the Supreme Court – in 1831, the Cherokee Nation versus Georgia and in 1832 Worcester versus Georgia. Marshall based his decisions on the conclusions he devised earlier concerning Robert Fletcher and William M’Intosh. He maintained that the Indian tribes were domestic entities and wholly dependent on the United States which entitled them to the rank of “quasi-sovereignty.” While they could participate in negotiating treaties with the U.S. in order to transfer title of their lands, they were not sufficiently sovereign to control other aspects of their lives as an autonomous political body. People have referred to this blatant exploitation unethical maneuver as “the equivalent of a woman’s being part-pregnant.” Marshall’s “monstrosity” became the foundation for the “Plenary Power Doctrine” which maintains that the U.S. government exercises complete control over all Indian issues and a simultaneous “trust responsibility” covering all Indian resources.<sup>[977]</sup>

Jackson’s Administration (1829-1837) negotiated and signed other treaties, which it then submitted to the Senate for ratification. In 1831 and 1832 Chief Justice John Marshall, referring to the Cherokees, said, “They have been uniformly treated as a state from the settlement of our country. The numerous treaties made with them by the United States recognize them as a people capable of maintaining the relations of peace and war, of being responsible in their political character for any violation of their engagements, or for any aggression committed on the citizens of the United States by an individual of their community.” Jackson argued that it was a mistake to sign treaties with Indians.<sup>[978]</sup>

Lawyer John Branch, a wealthy North Carolina planter and former U.S. Senator, was Jackson’s first Navy Secretary. He inherited his money from his father who owned 2,000 acres in North Carolina and 10,000 acres in Tennessee. He never practiced law but led the life of a privileged plantation owner. He replaced Branch with Mahlon Dickerson, a wealthy New Jersey attorney during the 1831 Cabinet reshuffle. He owned a large iron works firm in northern New Jersey.<sup>[979]</sup>

The Jackson Administration only negotiated removal treaties. He contrived the removal of the Choctaws from Mississippi beginning on November 1, 1831. By the end of his second term, he had negotiated almost seventy treaties, more than any other president had. During his administration, the U.S. seized about 100,000,000 acres of Indian land for about \$68 million in exchange for 32,000,000 acres west of the Mississippi River. Approximately 46,000 Indians emigrated to the West.<sup>[980]</sup> Choctaw relocation set a pattern for the removal of all other tribes. In what people refer to as the “Trail of Tears,” the Seminole were removed in 1832, the Creek in 1834, the Chickasaw in 1837, and the Cherokee in 1838.

On December 7, 1835, Jackson said, “The plan of removing the aboriginal people who yet remain within the settled portions of the United States to the country west of the Mississippi River approaches its consummation. It was adopted on the most mature consideration of the condition of this race, and ought to be persisted in till the object is accomplished, and prosecuted with as much vigor as a just regard to their circumstances will permit, and as fast as their consent can be obtained. All preceding experiments for the improvement of the Indians have failed. It seems now to be an established fact that they cannot live in contact with a civilized community and prosper.”<sup>[981]</sup>

A minority political faction of the Cherokee Nation and the U.S. government signed a treaty – the Treaty of New Echota on December 29, 1835. They amended and ratified the treaty in March 1836, which determined the conditions in which the entire Cherokee Nation would move west to the Indian Territory, now part of Oklahoma. Although the Cherokee National Council had no part in negotiating or signing this treaty, the U.S. Senate ratified it and exploited it as the legal foundation for the compulsory removal of the Cherokees, known as the Trail of Tears. That faction had ceded their southeastern territory to the U.S. in exchange for land in Indian Territory and \$15 million. John Ross, the main tribal chief, protested this injustice but his pleas were ineffective.<sup>[982]</sup>

In 1836, Treasury Secretary, Levi Woodbury (1789-1851) told Congress that an additional 100,000 more field hands plus the conversion of 500,000 more acres of rich fertile Southern land would enable the U.S. to produce enough cotton for the whole world. Before Lincoln's War, Britain was manufacturing clothing for the entire Western world, using southern cotton produced by enslaved Africans.<sup>[983]</sup> Secretary Woodbury's proposal prompted the Indian population's removal from their land so that wealthier settlers could construct profit-producing plantations and more effectively use the land.

The Sioux were not yet part of the relocations. Apparently, the whites had not yet targeted their lands. No one had discovered the gold in the Black Hills yet. That would occur in 1874. However, they did not have to wait too long; the advancing frontier would ultimately reach the upper Mississippi valley.<sup>[984]</sup> The *New York Journal of Commerce* charged Jackson with robbing "a defenseless tribe of Indians of their land." He did not initiate the land seizure policy but mercilessly enlarged upon it. He told the southern tribal leaders that they had no options – they had to relocate, even the Cherokee who had effectively assimilated and had adopted European cultural features. Jackson deceptively assured the Indians that removal was beneficial. The only people who benefited from his vicious policies were his land speculating, slave-owning friends.<sup>[985]</sup>

Forced relocation and concentration, now established federal policy, caused mass disease and decimation of the native peoples. The U.S. government forcibly removed the entire Cherokee Nation from parts of Tennessee, Georgia, North Carolina, and Alabama to Oklahoma during 1838. U.S. troops herded about 17,000 Cherokees and force-marched them for about 1,500 miles to Indian Territory, now Oklahoma. Their removal accelerated white settlement and the construction of huge plantations. At least 50% or about 8,000 of those poor souls in the notorious "Trail of Tears" perished because of malnutrition-generated disease, starvation and exposure. The U.S. military forced the other four of the Five Civilized Tribes from their fertile lands to the barrenness of Indian Territory during the same time.<sup>[986]</sup>

About 15%, or 6,000 out of 40,000, of the Choctaw Nation perished during their relocation. The Chickasaw Nation lost a similar number. The Creeks and Seminoles experienced approximately 50% mortality. The Creeks suffered the majority of their deaths immediately after their forced relocation. Approximately 3,500 out of the 10,000 sorrowful souls that the government snatched from homes and lands and forcibly resettled during 1836 and 1837 died of bilious fevers.<sup>[987]</sup>

Many scholars have asserted that the decimation of America's native population following the "European invasion" was the result of disease and unintended starvation rather than deliberate slaughter. They fail to mention that the diseases resulted from forced relocation to uninhabitable barren locations.<sup>[988]</sup> In 1900, the census showed a native population of 237,000 within the U.S. The Smithsonian Institution, as late as the 1980s, continued to maintain that there were never more than about a third of a million natives living in North America, including Greenland. After years of intense research, Henry Dobyns concludes that there were as many as 18.5 million natives living in North America before the Europeans arrived.<sup>[989]</sup>

## **Jackson and the Second Bank of the United States**

Congress, as recommended by James Madison, chartered the Second Bank of the United States from 1816 to 1836. Both banks, the first and the second, favored mercantile over agrarian interests. The headquarters of the first bank was in Philadelphia with branches in eight cities. The second bank had twenty-five branches. The bank acted as the government's fiscal agent and conducted general commercial business.

The Whigs attacked Andrew Jackson's mobocracy policies, especially the Democrat Party's glorification of unconstrained "might makes right" mentality, which promised immediate power to certain people. The Jacksonians formulated their own political machine, which included a compromised media and a highly developed spoils system. Like many current politicians, Jackson, a lawyer, rarely wrote the arguments to

justify his prospective actions but relied on his advisers.<sup>[990]</sup> Political opponents referred to Jackson's cronies as his Kitchen Cabinet. They included Martin Van Buren, Francis Preston Blair, Amos Kendall, William B. Lewis, Andrew Jackson Donelson, John Overton, and Roger B. Taney.

Andrew Jackson, a notorious brawler and former vigilante, was first a military man and second, a politician, like others who followed his career path. His major military expeditions took place in New Orleans and Spanish Florida, areas that affected few voters directly. However, others viewed Jackson and his characteristic military forays, infamous duels and public brawls as problematic. While his questionable behavior for a prospective president alarmed others, he apparently was not concerned about what others thought. Some people feared that he might adapt his personal prejudices to domestic and foreign policies. Jackson's Indian removal policies, initially introduced by Thomas Jefferson, were inhumane and criminal. His opponents referred to him as King Andrew due to his disregard for all legal restraints regarding his approach to the indigenous population and his actions during what people called the bank war.<sup>[991]</sup>

In Jackson's younger days, he had speculated in land and had serious financial challenges. As a result, he developed a hatred for the banks and felt that they overcharged for their services and that credit encouraged over-spending. Jackson hated all banks, not just Nicholas Biddle's Bank of the United States (BUS), located in Philadelphia. The State of Pennsylvania originally chartered that bank. Jackson believed in and tried to use hard money exclusively – gold or silver – no paper money. He and his supporters erroneously claimed that gold and silver were the only currency recognized by the Constitution.<sup>[992]</sup>

Foreign investors largely owned the Bank of the United States. Therefore, people have assumed for decades that Jackson was courageous in his veto of the bank. However, he seized the depositor's money, along with federal funds, from one privately owned bank and placed the funds in other privately owned banks. The regulated Bank of the United States had legality on its side. Jackson, an early-day thug-turned politician, always assumed that he was right about every issue.<sup>[993]</sup> Often we are in the difficult position of choosing between two options, as if one is good and the other is bad when in fact, they are both questionable.

Between October 1829 and January 1830, Jackson and Biddle discussed the national debt and the bank. Jackson told Biddle that he was "very thankful to you (Biddle) for your plan of paying off the debt." Further, Jackson said, "I would have no difficulty in recommending it to Congress, but I think it right to be perfectly frank with you, I do not think that the power of Congress extends to charter a Bank out of the ten mile square. I do not dislike your Bank any more than all banks. But, ever since I read the history of the South Sea bubble I have been afraid of banks." Jackson respected John Marshall's opinion that there should be a "national bank" but Jackson said, "I do not think that Congress has a right to create a corporation out of the 10 mile square. I feel very sensibly the services rendered by the Bank at the last payment of the national debt and shall take an opportunity of declaring it publicly in my message to Congress."<sup>[994]</sup> The Second Bank of the United States paid off the principal of the public Debt of \$10,000,000 in January and July 1830, "without the least inconvenience to the Country."<sup>[995]</sup>

Josiah Nichol, of the Bank of the United States, a branch located in Nashville wrote a letter to Nicholas Biddle on July 20, 1830. President Jackson had just spent a few days at Nichol's home while he visited Nashville. Nichol reported to Biddle that the president "appears to be generally pleased with the Management of the Bank of the United States and Branches, and particularly so with this office." Nichol continued, "I have taken considerable pains and gave him all the information I consistently could on Banking Subjects and believe have convinced him that the Present Bank and Branches could not be dispensed with without Manifest injury to the Country." Nichol reported that Jackson appears to be

generally pleased with the Management of the United States Bank.<sup>[996]</sup>

On December 6, 1830, Andrew Jackson, in his second annual message to Congress, said, “In the spirit of improvement and compromise which distinguishes our country and its institutions it becomes us to inquire whether it be not possible to secure the advantages afforded by the present bank through the agency of a Bank of the United States so modified in its principles and structures as to obviate constitutional and other objections.”<sup>[997]</sup>

Further, Jackson said, “It is thought practicable to organize such a bank with the necessary officers as a branch of the Treasury Department, based on the public and individual deposits, without power to make loans or purchase property, which shall remit the funds of the Government, and the expense of which may be paid, if thought advisable, by allowing its officers to sell bills of exchange to private individuals at a moderate premium. Not being a corporate body, having no stock holders, debtors, or property, and but few officers, it would not be obnoxious to the constitutional objections which are urged against the present bank; and having no means to operate on the hopes, fears, or interests of large masses of the community, it would be shorn of the influence which makes that bank formidable. The States would be strengthened by having in their hands the means of furnishing the local paper currency through their own banks, while the Bank of the United States, though issuing no paper, would check the issues of the State banks by taking their notes in deposit and for exchange only so long as they continue to be redeemed with specie. In times of public emergency the capacities of such an institution might be enlarged by legislative provisions.”<sup>[998]</sup>

Louis McLane, Treasury Secretary from August 8, 1831 to May 29, 1833, alerted others about Jackson’s shenanigans and they, in turn, passed his warnings to Biddle. On December 7, 1831, Samuel Smith wrote to Biddle, saying, “I had last night a long conversation with McLane and I am authorized by him to say that it is his deliberate opinion and advice that a renewal of the Charter ought not to be pressed during the present session in which I concur most sincerely. The message is as much as you could expect. It shows that the Chief is wavering. If pressed into a Corner immediately neither McLane nor myself will answer for the consequences.”<sup>[999]</sup>

On December 11, 1831, Robert Gibbes wrote to Biddle, “From the Presidents message, and the Report of the Secretary of the Treasury we were all led to believe that the powers that be were in favor of re-chartering that invaluable institution. Now to the facts, William T. Barry, Levi Woodbury, and Roger B. Taney are hostile. These three are under the influence of Francis Preston Blair, William B. Lewis, Amos Kendall and company who still rule our Chief Magistrate, and who himself is an enemy to the Bank in despite what he is made to say in his message.”<sup>[1000]</sup>

Many people placed their hopes on McLane’s favorable report about the Bank. However, the *Globe* modified and then denounced the report and Barry or Woodbury, both associated with the Bank, never saw the report until it appeared in print. McLane resigned the next morning. McLane had submitted the report to Jackson who approved it. However, the *Richmond Enquirer* printed a statement saying that the re-charter would require a majority of three fourths of Congress to carry the measure into a Law.<sup>[1001]</sup>

Jackson’s admirers recognized that his special deposit scheme increased his political influence and promoted speculation and loose credit over hard money instead of reasonable financial self-control.<sup>[1002]</sup> In November 1832, the voters reelected Jackson, not because of his anti-bank position but despite it.<sup>[1003]</sup> Jackson and Van Buren were hugely triumphant!

In 1833, Jackson traveled north, accompanied by Lewis Cass, the Secretary of War, where the crowds applauded him for suppressing nullification. Officials at Harvard, who represented northern academia and the aristocrats, “dubbed” him the Doctor of Laws, a title that disgusted the learned. After keeping an

exhaustive itinerary, Jackson returned home “to strike another blow at the Bank of the United States.” He had nothing but malice towards Nicholas Biddle and according to Andrew C. McLaughlin, he had a “reckless indifference to the effect on the business of the country, an indifference which arose from a complete ignorance of the laws of finance and the sensitive nature of capital, he dashed into a contest with the national bank as if he were hunting Indians in the swamps of Florida.”<sup>[1004]</sup>

According to the law, the public funds, deposited in the bank, were subject to removal by the Secretary of the Treasury. He had to provide legitimate reasons to Congress in case of removal. However, Jackson removed the deposits and determined the distribution of the funds among the various state banks without any oversight from Congress. Members of his own cabinet disagreed with Jackson’s removal of the funds, especially William J. Duane, the Secretary of the Treasury, who was determined to abide by what he considered his prerogative. Duane refused to remove the deposits when Jackson requested him and dismissed him. Jackson transferred Taney to the Treasury. Taney was prepared to do Jackson’s bidding and defend his actions. Earlier, Jackson had transferred McLane from the Treasury to the Department of State. McLane had been averse to the removal of the deposits and wished to resign, but someone dissuaded him and he became Secretary of State.<sup>[1005]</sup>

Jackson had appointed William J. Duane as his Treasury Secretary in June 1833. He asked Duane to continue removing federal deposits but Duane refused and tried to persuade Jackson against such a dubious course. Consequently, in September 1833, Jackson replaced Duane with Roger B. Taney, a former Federalist and an advocate of Jackson’s Federalist-like policies.<sup>[1006]</sup>

Taney, a former Maryland state legislator (1816-1821) and Maryland Attorney General (1827-1831) then became U.S. Attorney General (1831-1833). Jackson then chose him as Treasury Secretary to carry out Jackson’s financial goals. Taney’s family was part of Maryland’s landed aristocracy. He had served as a state bank director and sat on the board of a few state banks. He was a prominent Federalist who became a Jackson supporter in the 1820s. Taney practiced law in Frederick, Maryland until 1823 and then moved to Baltimore where he was General Counsel and board member of the Union Bank whose president, Thomas Ellicott, was a very close friend. Ellicott was deeply antagonistic to the Second Bank of the United States. He persuaded Taney that it was hazardous and should be abolished or severely curtailed.<sup>[1007]</sup>

Taney, with his pro-entrepreneurial outlook, was closely associated with the newly established Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. He worked indirectly, while serving the “people’s interest” as U.S. Attorney General, to help secure federal funds for the construction of this pricey railway line. He obviously endorsed the early development of corporate enterprise with government complicity and assistance.<sup>[1008]</sup> He also directed some lobbying efforts through John H. B. Latrobe, attorney for the railroad and a Director of the Union Bank of Baltimore. The so-called party of the common people clearly advocated the development of federally backed corporate enterprise.<sup>[1009]</sup>

In September 1833, President Jackson halted the deposit of government funds into the Second Bank of the United States through an executive order. Following his order, he directed his associates to deposit these government funds into state chartered banks. Jacksonian Democrats controlled six out of the seven initial depositories. Attorney General Roger B. Taney transferred all government deposits from the Second Bank of the United States to the Bank of Girard. Stephen Girard had purchased the assets of the First Bank of the United States when its charter was not renewed. He helped finance the War of 1812 and was a stockholder of the Second Bank.

Albany Attorney Benjamin F. Butler (1795-1858), Martin Van Buren’s former law partner and close friend, replaced Roger B. Taney as Attorney General in September 1833. In the 1820s Butler, an early member of the Albany Regency, with close connections to state banking interests and had been head of an

Albany bank, which had been established by a New York financier. Butler was a Director of Albany's Regency-controlled Mechanics and Farmers Bank and sat on the board of the New York Life Insurance and Trust Company from 1830, when established, until his death in 1858.<sup>[1010]</sup> Officials named Fort Butler for Butler, which was one of the forts built for the forced removal of the Cherokee Indians during the Trail of Tears. The Albany Regency, Van Buren's operation, was one of the first U.S. political machines. They collaborated with numerous New York banks in an attempt to destroy the Philadelphia-based Bank of the United States in order to allow Wall Street to seize the nation's financial leadership.<sup>[1011]</sup>

However, soon after the initial federal funds transfer, Jackson nominated Taney as Treasury Secretary. Within three days of his appointment as Treasury Secretary, from September 23, 1833 – June 25, 1834, Taney continued Jackson's withdrawals and transfers of federal funds to select state banks. Jackson, energized by his majority victory, empowered the executive office over the other two branches of government. Apparently, according to Jackson's detractors, Jackson felt that it was "natural and normal" for a government to be "shaped by majority will" rather than by law.<sup>[1012]</sup> It is indisputable that the power of the presidency took a giant leap forward during Jackson's two terms.

Lewis Cass, the Secretary of War (1831-1836), disagreed with Jackson's attack on the Bank. On September 23, 1833, Cass met with William B. Lewis, a close Jackson advisor, head of the "kitchen cabinet," to discuss the removal of the deposits. Cass had decided to resign from the cabinet and wanted to talk with Lewis before he left. He did not want to remain in the cabinet, as Jackson's "operations" the "removal of the public deposits from the United States Bank" embarrassed him. Lewis urged Cass to talk with Jackson and to remain in the cabinet. Cass told Lewis, "You know, sir, I have always thought that the matter rests entirely with the Secretary of the Treasury."<sup>[1013]</sup>

The formidable pro-Bank Senate rejected Taney, a former Maryland lawyer in June 1834; about nine months after Jackson appointed him. Jackson then chose lawyer Levi Woodbury, his second Secretary of the Navy and former U.S. Senator and long-time pro-Jackson politico. People knew Woodbury for his opposition to the Bank of the United States. Woodbury's wealthy merchant father-in-law was the president of the Maine Bank of Portland. Additionally Woodbury had substantial investments in numerous state banks – four in New Hampshire and one in Washington, D.C. He completed the withdrawal process that Taney had begun. By 1836, that once-powerful institution, the Second Bank of the United States, was gone.<sup>[1014]</sup> On March 15, 1836, Jackson rewarded Taney with the position of Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court, an office held until his death in 1864. In 1857, Chief Justice Taney wrote the infamous Dred Scott decision.

Roger B. Taney, the head of the Boston-run Federalist Party, accused Biddle of creating a situation that the opposition could not have implemented. He inadvertently caused its inevitable destruction. Biddle's intentions, perhaps to embarrass Jackson or just jump the gun, instead provoked Jackson's characteristic combativeness and he cast the Bank as a monster that needed thrashing.<sup>[1015]</sup> Many good, trusting people deposited their life's savings in Evan Poultney's Bank of Maryland and other banks during the Jacksonian era and lost everything when those banks collapsed. Taney covered for the corrupt private owners of the Bank of Maryland, six men of privilege and Taney's closest friends, who soon bought up 900 of the 1,000 shares of stock. Taney's aid was essential to the perpetuation of a fraud and cover-up. The owners speculated, bought up its own stock, using \$500,000 of government money supplied by Taney. Through his political maneuvering, Taney removed one influential bank official who fought the swindle.<sup>[1016]</sup>

It is probable, due to the serious risks and intricate deceptions that he took, that Taney was the seventh owner in the group that directed the bank between the fall of 1832 and the spring of 1834. The Bank of Maryland collaborators, seeing other financial opportunities, invested in bonds and then began negotiations to purchase 6,000 shares of Union Bank, even investing the depositor's life savings. They knew, from Taney or Thomas Ellicott, the Union Bank president, that Union Bank was to become a federal repository and concluded that its stock would increase in value once this became public knowledge. They needed money immediately to close the deal, money that was readily available from the U.S. Treasury.<sup>[1017]</sup>

The U.S. Treasury was under the control of Taney, their collaborator. However, Taney could not just funnel a federal loan to the Bank of Maryland. There had to be some justification if the transaction ever became public knowledge. Protecting pet banks from sudden runs by the Bank of the United States seemed legitimate, so Taney sent \$100,000 drafts to favored banks. Jackson's supporters realized that special deposit plans increased political influence and encouraged speculation, which fostered loose credit rather than hard money. Between 1834 and 1836, after the bank closed, the collaborators expanded their personal property, bought additional property and started new businesses suitable to the elite status they had attained. While those they had swindled were often left homeless.<sup>[1018]</sup>

Some of Jackson's followers opposed banks, especially the Second Bank of the United States. He engaged in the "Bank War" with Nicholas Biddle. Meanwhile, Jackson withdrew all the federal funds and put them into banks owned by his wealthy friends who then speculated on western lands. This provoked over-speculation and purportedly caused the Panic of 1837. Biddle funded anti-Jackson newspapers, loaned money to pro-Bank Congressmen, distributed tracts, pamphlets, and journals.<sup>[1019]</sup>

Nicholas Biddle responded to the illegal removal of deposits by engineering an artificial recession by calling in the Bank's loans before they were due and contracting credit, which increased unemployment, as businesses were unable to secure loans. Biddle said, "This worthy president thinks that because he has scalped Indians and imprisoned judges he is to have his way with the Bank." Biddle was hopeful that the orchestrated panic would stimulate the business community in support of the bank. It had just the opposite effect. He conceded in the fall of 1834 and allowed prosperity to return.<sup>[1020]</sup>

Nicholas Biddle, the President of the Second Bank of the United States wrote, "I am not a Whig. I am not a Locofoco. I once belonged to a party now obsolete called the Democratic Party, a very good party until it was spoiled by General Jackson. I am now only an American Citizen deeply concerned in the welfare & very anxious about the character of the country."<sup>[1021]</sup>

Senator John Forsyth vigorously defended Jackson. Therefore, when Jackson, who had always directed his own foreign policy, began his second term he rewarded Forsyth's fidelity by appointing the Georgian as Secretary of State after Louis McLane, a former member of the Federalist Party and later the Democratic Party, resigned in opposition to Jackson's financial indiscretions. Forsyth won the Senate's

unanimous consent on June 27, 1834.<sup>[1022]</sup> He served under Jackson and his handpicked successor Martin Van Buren whose administration established the Independent Treasury System to manage government's funds. Both chief executives dominated foreign affairs and required Forsyth to administer their policies and remain out of the public view.<sup>[1023]</sup>

Bray Hammond, author of *Banks and Politics in America*, argued that Jackson's assault on the Philadelphia-based Bank of the United States was evidence of the materialization of rival business interests among influential cities. Hammond suggests that the New York banks were hostile towards the federally chartered Philadelphia-based Bank, under the direction of Nicholas Biddle. Charles Biddle, father of Nicholas, was associated with Aaron Burr, which muddies the proverbial conspiratorial waters. Wall Street wanted to supplant Philadelphia's Chestnut Street as the nation's banking center. Jackson's closest advisors, especially state party boss – Martin Van Buren, had business ties and close links to certain New York banks. Biddle's premature attempt to re-charter the Bank politically provoked Jackson into a clash of egos. Jackson then vetoed the charter and transferred the federal deposits to friendlier vaults.<sup>[1024]</sup>

## **The Jackson Administration, a Den of Vipers**

People habitually memorialize Jackson for allegedly saying, "You are a den of vipers and thieves. I intend to rout you out, and by the grace of the Eternal God, I will rout you out." People regularly accept repetitive lies, like this one, as fact. A *Time Magazine* article gave it credibility when the magazine repeated the phrase in 1984.<sup>[1025]</sup> This oft-used quote came from a privately printed 6-page book (310 copies), *Andrew Jackson and the Bank of the United States*, written in 1928 by Stan V. Henkels Jr. He claims that his father, in 1883, found the original minutes of the Philadelphia Citizens Committee, a group of men who went to Washington in 1834. Jackson, a typical politician, did not make that statement to these men, according to the official report as printed on March 1, 1834 in the *Niles' Weekly Register*.<sup>[1026]</sup> A politician's actions are more significant than his words. In 1834, his administration, with his approval, was making a deal with the London Rothschilds.

The Report of the Philadelphia Committee, records that 10,259 Philadelphia residents petitioned for the restoration of the Second Bank of the United States in that city. On February 11, 1834, twenty-one men took the petition to Washington and met with Jackson to "make known to him the condition, the sufferings and opinions of their constituents." The men on the committee, expecting some relief, were incredibly disappointed. The chairman hardly spoke before the president interrupted him, and delivered a vehement twenty-minute discourse, according to the chairman, "through us to our constituents," *his opinions and his determination* in reference to the restoration of the deposits, the re-charter of the bank, and the future disposition of the public revenue.<sup>[1027]</sup>

The committee created several resolutions particularly regarding Jackson's experiment upon the national currency, "by wielding at his sole will the entire revenue, is usurpation incompatible with our system of government, and at utter variance with the duties of a chief magistrate of a republic, who is no more above the law than the humblest citizen of our land." The men on the committee also noted Jackson's "disregard of consequences, resulting from the measures of his administration, by his reluctance to listen to facts or reason, and by substituting his personal feelings and arbitrary will." They were upset over the "suspension of commerce" because Jackson had removed the public monies. The bank had ceased paying pensions while the Treasury Secretary confiscated and removed public monies. Many Pennsylvania citizens had voter's remorse.<sup>[1028]</sup>

In December 1833, the National Republican majority in the Senate insisted that Jackson relinquish the documents connected to the removal of deposits from the Bank. Despite numerous claims, the Senate did

not censure Jackson. On March 28, 1834, Senator Henry Clay, backed by John C. Calhoun and Daniel Webster, introduced three resolutions describing the controversial actions that the president had taken and “noted their disagreement with the legality of the President’s actions.”<sup>[1029]</sup> The resolutions concluded that Jackson’s acts were improper, but it did not inflict any punishment, remove him from office, disqualify him from seeking future office or fine him. In 1837, Congress proposed a new resolution, calling for removal of the 1834 censure.<sup>[1030]</sup>

During the Bank War, the common people lost their jobs and properties. With the removal of funds and Biddle’s recession, violence erupted between Jackson’s Democrats and their opponents, workers against employers, whites against blacks, natives against immigrants, Protestants against Catholics, and local communities against new arrivals. Many logically blamed Jackson for the wave of unrest. In February 1834, he had received a note, “Damn your old soul, remove them deposits back again, and re-charter the Bank, or you will certainly be shot in less than two weeks, and that, by myself.” He had received many threats. On January 30, 1835, an unemployed house painter Richard Lawrence, using two pistols, shot at Jackson who was in the company of Treasury Secretary Levi Woodbury. Due to the mugginess of the weather, the pistol cap in both guns failed to ignite the powder. Jackson went after Lawrence with his cane. Lawrence may have suffered from a disorder due to long-term exposure to paint chemicals. He had previously attempted to kill his sister and had threatened others. He was acquitted “by reason of insanity” after five minutes of deliberation.<sup>[1031]</sup> Francis Scott Key, Taney’s brother-in-law, was the prosecuting attorney in the case, brought to trial on April 11, 1835. Lawrence, who many claim worked for the Rothschilds, spent the remainder of his life in numerous institutions and hospitals.

On July 10, 1832, Jackson vetoed the re-chartering of the Second Bank of the United States. Some claim that George Bancroft wrote Jackson’s famous Bank Veto message, a misconception based on Bancroft’s published letter dated October 1, 1834 in which he endorsed Jackson’s veto. Bancroft, to enhance voter understanding, simplified the veto message by outlining five justifications to eliminate the bank.<sup>[1032]</sup> Others thought that Taney wrote Jackson’s congressional message. Since 1917, individuals have found three manuscript drafts in the Andrew Jackson Donelson Papers in the Library of Congress. After careful analyses, researcher Lynn L. Marshall concluded that Amos Kendall was the principle author with minor assistance from Taney, Woodbury, Donelson and Jackson. People assumed that Taney, because of his influential position and legal prowess, had written the message. Taney never denied that assumption. Carl B. Swisher, in his Taney biography, credited Taney with the authorship but extant historical evidence proves otherwise.<sup>[1033]</sup>

There were 147 riots during 1835, 109 of them occurred between July and October. Many riots were due to Jackson’s refusal to re-charter the bank. Citizens were angry because officials now allocated federal funds to Jackson’s friends, bank owners who invested in speculative ventures for the potential profits but possibly at great risk. Jackson’s animosity against the Bank of the United States was that private investors owned the bank. The Jackson administration, authorized by the Secretary of War, used the military to quash riots in three instances – in Detroit against blacks who freed two fugitive slaves, against Irish laborers in Maryland to protect the financial interests of Taney’s cronies and against people rioting at the Baltimore bank, also to protect the financial interests of Taney’s cronies.<sup>[1034]</sup>

Despite his claims of being the man of the common people, religiously sustained by establishment historians, Jackson and his friends were all wealthy. His policies ignored the plight of the working people. His banking policies enabled his friends to make money while the poor often lost everything. Jackson and his friends designed his banking policies to help bankers friendly to his newly established Democratic Party but they also destabilized the nation’s currency.

Jackson’s political actions created the disastrous economic fluctuations of the 1830s and early 1840s. In

1832, he vetoed the early re-charter of the Second Bank of the United States. He then withdrew the public deposits in 1833 and deposited them into private banks which initiated unsound credit expansion and inflation characterized by unprecedented speculation in public lands. Peter Temin wrote, “The excesses of this boom would have produced a crisis in any case, but Jackson precipitated the Panic of 1837 by his policies toward the public land sales which had intensified the expansion and produced a surplus of money in the hands of the Federal Government. Jackson’s associates designed his *Specie Circular*, issued by Secretary of the Treasury Levi Woodbury on July 11, 1836, to curb land sales and the distribution of the surplus money in 1837 was an attempt to dispose of the revenue already collected from them. Together they produced the Panic of 1837. After the panic the boom collapsed, and the economy slipped into one of the worst depressions it has known.”<sup>[1035]</sup>

Nicholas Biddle believed that Jackson’s refusal to re-charter the Second Bank of the United States prompted the irresponsible creation of paper money by the state banks, which had triggered this crisis. Congress, by accommodating Jackson, dashed the dreams of millions of ordinary citizens, due to the Panic of 1837. Jackson, “the man of the common people,” in an Executive Order, with Congress then passed the Specie Circular Act, implemented by President Martin Van Buren, making it nearly impossible for small farmers to purchase land. Prior to this legislation, bank notes were acceptable payment for seized Indian land. Now, only gold or silver were acceptable. Small banks across the country failed. Officials auctioned off southern farms. Many small farmers had little more than a garden plot to eke out a living. Some middle class slave owners, unable to pay their loans, lost their land and slaves at the auction block – to the elite monopolists.<sup>[1036]</sup>

Van Buren, Jackson’s successor, took the oath of office on March 4, 1837. He favored the Spanish instead of the kidnapped blacks in the Amistad affair and oversaw the expulsion of the Cherokee Indians from four states. When Missouri Governor Lilburn W. Boggs issued the Extermination Order against 20,000 Mormon settlers in Missouri on October 27, 1838, he responded to their plea for help by saying, “Your cause is just, but I can do nothing for you; if I take up for you I shall lose the vote of Missouri.” The group also appealed to Congress, particularly John C. Calhoun.<sup>[1037]</sup> It was useless; political expediency and popularity are more important than the human rights of Indians, blacks or Mormons.

## **Andrew Jackson and the Rothschilds, Fiscal Agents for the Government**

Foreign firms, laden with cash, were eager for U.S. business. The Rothschilds had substantial investments in municipal and state stocks, canals, railroads, mining and financial institutions. They had U.S. business interests before the 1820s and had agents well entrenched in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. In 1833, according to records in the Rothschild Archives, N. M. Rothschild & Son appointed J. L. & S. Joseph and Company to manage their New York City business. They worked in conjunction with R. & I. Phillips of Philadelphia who, according to Rothschild Archive records, began serving the Rothschild interests in 1821. The agent’s main activities were in the area of gold bullion and bills of exchange.<sup>[1038]</sup> R. Phillips was Robert Phillips (1789-1833) and I. Phillips was Isaac Phillips (1791-1851). These brothers had emigrated from London to Philadelphia in 1812-1813.<sup>[1039]</sup>

Israel I. Cohen emigrated from Oberdorff, near Nördlingen, Bavaria, and settled in Richmond, Virginia about 1784. His brother Jacob, a Freemason, and his partner Isaiah Isaacs emigrated from Frankfurt via England. They financed some of Daniel Boone’s Kentucky surveys.<sup>[1040]</sup> Jacob I. Cohen financed the Baltimore branch of the slave trade for the British East India Company.<sup>[1041]</sup> The Rothschilds had £40,000 of British East India stock.<sup>[1042]</sup> Jacob opened a bank with a branch in New York City for slave trading. Later, the Cohens, with others, including Dr. Aaron Friedenwald, Dr. Cyrus Alder, and Rabbi Benjamin Szold of Baltimore, founded the local chapter of the Rothschild-controlled Alliance Israelite Universelle.

Jacob I. Cohen and Isaiah Isaacs, both Rothschild agents, commissioned Daniel Boone to locate 10,000 acres of land for them for which he received £22 specie.<sup>[\[1044\]](#)</sup> Cohen and Isaacs later commissioned him to survey land on the Licking River in Kentucky.<sup>[\[1045\]](#)</sup> Jacob I. Cohen died in 1803; they buried him in Richmond. His widow Judith Solomon was a native of Bristol, England, a commercial seaport and the center of Britain's slave trade. After her husband's unexpected death, she and her seven children moved to Baltimore. Her son, Jacob and his brothers, all politically active, ultimately went into the banking business as Jacob I. Cohen, Jr. and Brothers. The firm, acting for the Rothschilds, became one of the most reliable in the country.<sup>[\[1046\]](#)</sup> Citizens elected Solomon Etting and Jacob I. Cohen to the Baltimore City Council. Etting was president of one of the branches of the City Council.<sup>[\[1047\]](#)</sup>

Nathan Rothschild was married to Hannah Cohen, a possible, nay probable relative of the Baltimore Cohens. The British Salomans/Solomons and the Cohens regularly intermarried, an ethnic tradition. Isaiah and David Isaacs, from Frankfurt, knew Mayer A. Rothschild in the Judengasse where all Jews (about 2,500) were required to live. Rothschild presumably funded Boone's Kentucky surveys. David Isaacs, a merchant who was born in 1760 in Frankfurt, was in Virginia in the early 1790s. He and his brother Isaiah Isaacs had been traders for Cohen and Isaacs, one of Richmond's largest mercantile firms.<sup>[\[1048\]](#)</sup>

The Ettings settled in Baltimore about 1792 and helped found the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad (B&O) in 1830. Benjamin Etting engaged in the China trade, importing tea, silk, and other valuable Oriental products.<sup>[\[1049\]](#)</sup> <sup>[\[1050\]](#)</sup> Roger B. Taney a Baltimore lawyer had close connections to the B&O Railroad, which they formally incorporated on April 24, 1827. Taney, as U.S. Attorney General (1831-1833), not only supported this venture but also secured federal funding for some of its costly construction.<sup>[\[1051\]](#)</sup> Earlier, on November 26, 1814, Robert Fulton wrote to Solomon Etting to thank him for offering the funds to construct a "steam Vessel of War" in Baltimore. Etting put between \$150,000 and \$225,000 towards the project.<sup>[\[1052\]](#)</sup>

Solomon's father, Elijah Etting, born in Frankfurt in 1724, came to America in 1758. In November 1759, he married Shinah Solomon, daughter of merchant Joseph Solomon, formerly of London.<sup>[\[1053\]](#)</sup> Solomon Etting was a Freemason, a member of the Sublime Lodge of Perfection in Philadelphia as early as 1781.<sup>[\[1054\]](#)</sup> Etting, though born in America, was quite active in assisting German immigrants in Baltimore.<sup>[\[1055\]](#)</sup> When the Germans in Baltimore celebrated the 1848 revolution in Germany, Cohen was the vice-chairman of the committee.<sup>[\[1056\]](#)</sup>

The Cohens, in conjunction with the Phillips, helped facilitate the arrangement for the London branch of the Rothschilds to function as a fiscal agent for the U.S. State Department.<sup>[\[1057\]](#)</sup> Jacob I. Cohen was the president of the Baltimore-Philadelphia Railroad and other important companies.<sup>[\[1058\]](#)</sup> He was a director of the B&O Railroad and President of the Baltimore Fire Insurance Co. In addition to being on the City Council, he helped found Baltimore's public school system, an interest that the Rothschilds adamantly promoted. Cohen was Secretary and Secretary-Treasurer of the Board of Public School Commissioners.<sup>[\[1059\]](#)</sup>

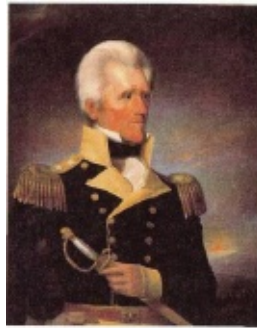
Niall Ferguson wrote, "Rothschild interest in the US dates from the early 1830s, when an opportunity arose to arrange the payment of a million pounds owing to the Treasury in Washington from France. This coup led to the Rothschilds replacing the Barings as the federal government's London agents. At the same time, Nathan and James Rothschild began their increased interest in American state loans and commercial finance."<sup>[\[1060\]](#)</sup>

R. and I. Phillips of Philadelphia contacted the Secretary of the Treasury, Roger B. Taney (1833-1834) via a letter dated April 19, 1834. R. and I. Phillips knew that the U.S. still had a claim against the French government for interfering with U.S. shipping during the Napoleonic era. Phillips offered the services of

any of the Rothschild branches, Frankfurt, Paris, Naples and London. N. M. Rothschild & Sons, besides the usual business transactions, would continue to collect the monies due the U.S. from France, the French Spoliation Claims, and continued to act on behalf of the U.S. after the death of Nathan M. Rothschild on July 28, 1836.<sup>[1061]</sup>

The new Treasury Secretary Levi Woodbury, a Freemason, received a letter from the Secretary of State, John Forsyth, dated August 6, 1834, as follows, “I have the honor to acquaint you that, *under the President’s Sanction*, I have appointed N. M. Rothschild Esquire at London, to be *the Banker of the United States*, in Europe after the close of the present year. Messrs. Barings of London and Mr. (William) Willink of Amsterdam have been advised of this arrangement, and informed that their services in that character will then terminate: and have been requested to pay over to Mr. Rothschild any balances that may remain in their hands to the credit of the United States on the 1st. of January next.”<sup>[1062]</sup>

N. M. Rothschild & Sons sent a letter to Secretary of State, John Forsyth, dated September 29, 1834 referring to the Secretary’s letter of August 6. It was a letter of confirmation regarding the services that N. M. Rothschild & Sons was going to perform in behalf of the U.S. government as “the appointment of Banker of the United States in Europe.” Those services were to begin on January 1, 1835. Previously, according to the letter, Baring Brothers and Co. and Mr. William Willink Jr. of Amsterdam had been acting in behalf of the U.S. Their services were to end on December 31, 1834.<sup>[1063]</sup>



After years of working for the Rothschilds, on July 20, 1836, Jacob I. Cohen, Jr. and Co. of Baltimore, Maryland, sent a celebratory unexpected gift to Britain, to Nathan M. Rothschild, a painting of a uniformed Andrew Jackson. During the “Bank War” Jackson had transferred all U.S. government accounts to N. M. Rothschild & Sons from Baring Brothers, a large London merchant banking house that had financial connections in the U.S. since the end of the Revolutionary War. The government officially appointed them in 1803 as the London financial agent for the U.S. government. Biddle, the president of the Second Bank of the United States associated with Barings, a private corporation similar to the Federal Reserve, which invested in government funds, issued, and regulated currency. By the time the painting arrived in London, British investors were beginning to lose confidence in their U.S. investments. However, it was due to an economic misunderstanding perpetuated by the media on both sides of the Atlantic.<sup>[1064]</sup>

Author Jessica Leper maintains that the media, in Britain and the U.S., reported rapidly rising interest rates that created uncertainty about discount and exchange rates beginning in the summer of 1836, especially after Jackson issued the *Specie Circular* that limited payment for federal lands to gold or silver coin. The Treasury issued this circular after Congress had adjourned for the summer. He maintained that this measure would halt land speculation and the circulation of paper money. Instead, they shipped specie from main banking facilities to frontier outposts. This produced the “pressure of 1836” which ultimately initiated the panic. Leper claims that faulty international and national interpretations launched the panic.<sup>[1065]</sup>

The U.S. Federal Government established a branch mint in New Orleans on March 3, 1835. There were

also branch mints at Charlotte, North Carolina and Dahlonega, Georgia. This was in conjunction with Jackson's *Specie Circular*, an executive order that directed citizens conduct all U.S. land transactions in cash. Along with the Panic of 1837, the Specie Circular and Jackson's fiscal policies increased the domestic need for minted money.

Jacob I. Cohen, Jr. and Co., the Rothschild's agent, remained constant, even during 1837, the crisis year. It was one of the few banks that still paid its depositors at the time of the suspension of specie payments.<sup>[1066]</sup> Jacob Cohen's brothers, Benjamin and David helped found the Baltimore Stock Exchange in 1837.<sup>[1067]</sup> The Rothschilds actively pursued business interests in the U.S. They were able to manipulate and influence economics, land development, gold discovery and even act, for a time, as fiscal agents for the U.S. government with the assent of a president who claimed to hate all bankers.

The Rothschilds were fiscal agents for the U. S. Government until 1843. John Tyler appointed Whig Daniel Webster as Secretary of State. He was a New Hampshire native, a Boston lawyer, and a teacher and politician. He reinstated the accounts to Baring Brothers and Company, which had merged with the Amsterdam-based Hope and Company by 1811. One of Hope and Company's biggest clients was Amsterdam native, Levy Barent Cohen, the father-in-law of Nathan Mayer Rothschild who had independently developed strong business connections to Hope and Company and other Amsterdam-based financiers.

## **Planters versus the People**

In 1860, out of approximately four and a half million blacks, one-sixth of the population (31,443,321), four million were slaves. Over a third of them resided in the South. They worked the same long hours as the poor southern whites, whether male or female. Freedom, for the poor whites, was insignificant and illusive without the opportunity for economic advancement. The elite viewed the slaves as an investment and as personal property, vulnerable to violence or forced separation from family members. Certainly, some slave owners were more empathetic than others were. Any kind of bondage – economic, emotional, physical, or cultural, without the consent of the governed, is inhumane and intolerable.<sup>[1068]</sup> Slaves could not own property or carry a gun and the whites prohibited them from learning to read and write. Educated people are obviously more difficult to enslave. Slaves required a written pass whenever and wherever they traveled. They could not testify against a white person in any court and slave marriages were not legally recognized. The elites encouraged their slaves to produce many children who the owner could either profitably sell or have them labor on the plantation. Some slave owners used intimidation of threats against the slaves who had children. If the slaves failed to perform as requested, the owners could sell those children at the local slave auction. In the 1850s, a field hand might bring \$1,000 each. A skilled slave sold for more.<sup>[1069]</sup>

Even some slaveholders viewed slavery, used for economic reasons, as a “moral evil.” Slavery deeply affected the economics of the average local wage earner. Mechanics and laborers assembled at Lexington, Kentucky to draft an anti-slavery statement. It read, “Resolved, that the institution of slavery is prejudicial to every interest of the State...it degrades labor, enervates (weakens) industry, interferes with the occupations of free laboring citizens, separates too widely the poor and the rich, shuts out the laboring classes from the blessings of education ... and as slavery tends to the monopoly of as well as the degradation of labor, public and private right require its ultimate extinction.” The average worker in the South could not economically compete against readily available slave labor. The Navy Department in Norfolk, Virginia continued to use slave labor for the construction of a dry dock. White workers with families to support were obligated to remain idle while slave mechanics, owned and sustained by the elite, worked.<sup>[1070]</sup>

In the South, wealthy landowners regularly bought up the fertile land of debt-ridden farmers with each staged economic catastrophe. Farmers who lost their land, if they remained in the area, managed to eke out a living on a few acres. The working and living standards between slaves and the poor whites, both men and women, were similar. They both worked from before sunrise until dark. Slaves and poor whites had little hope of ever “improving their condition.” While the poor whites attained some semblance of freedom, slaves lived with inequitable social restraints, imposed by the elites.<sup>[1071]</sup> The poor whites, lacking political power could not abolish slavery. Northern whites opposed slavery’s expansion but supported its continued existence in the South because freed slaves might migrate north and compete for jobs. Northern industrialists had already convinced white employees that the source of their economic troubles was the free blacks already residing in the north. Slavery kept blacks in the cotton and tobacco fields and out of northern industrial cities.<sup>[1072]</sup>

The animosity gap between the rich and the poor had been widening for decades. Before the first shot of Lincoln’s War, only 1,000 families pocketed almost 50% of the South’s personal income. Only 5% of the agricultural wealth went to the South’s poorest people. Slaveholders dominated the economics and owned the majority of the most fertile land. Most citizens owned no land or slaves. In the late 1820s and 1830s, after the elite-enforced Indian removal, wealthy opportunists and new arrivals from the north quickly purchased the newly vacated land in order to plant profitable cotton. The elites crowded out small landowners who, despite their circumstances, retained their dreams of prosperity. Bankers refused to loan money to small farmers to purchase additional land. Others gradually moved into the slaveholder, planter class, as they were fortunate enough to have sufficient land.<sup>[1073]</sup>

Slaveholders focused on cotton and tobacco and hindered the economic growth for enslaved blacks and poor whites by pushing them into a state of dependency. The cost of food and other manufactured imports remained high. During Lincoln’s War, Georgia’s comptroller-general recognized the obvious disparities and the fact that the South could not feed itself. Georgia’s livestock production and other crops were declining.<sup>[1074]</sup> Privateers made a fortune charging exorbitant prices for basic items using blockade-running ships built by the British and French while the Union blockade prevented England and France from doing business with the South.

Thomas W. House (Huis), of Jewish origin, allegedly a Rothschild agent, grew incredibly wealthy during Lincoln’s War. He was the father of Edward Mandell House, whose middle name came from a Jewish merchant friend of his father.<sup>[1075]</sup> Thomas House emigrated to the U.S. from England and settled in Texas where he accrued great wealth by blockade running during Lincoln’s War, just as Nathan Rothschild had done during the Napoleonic Wars. Moreover, like Nathan, he dispatched cotton and other products to his British connections, including the Rothschilds. His ships returned laden with supplies that he sold above market price. He deposited his blockade running profits, all in gold, in London. By the war’s end, he had one of the biggest fortunes in Texas.<sup>[1076]</sup>

In the first year of the war, the South experienced a 300% inflation rate. The increase in food prices, along with the planter’s refusal to grow food instead of cotton, contributed to the pervasive suffering among the poor. Wages never kept up with prices. Many officials, to cover their own greed and guilt, blamed the Union blockade for rising prices. Insatiable merchants, collaborating with the rich planters, began to withhold commodities for top-dollar hard-money prices, which the common people seldom owned. Merchants often refused Confederate currency, which became increasingly less valuable. Speculators traveled the countryside buying up available food. The families of those fighting were regularly hungry and desperate. Atlanta, the commercial center and railroad hub of the South, was teeming with amoral speculators intent on making profits from the prevalent miseries of their fellow citizens.<sup>[1077]</sup>

Many unmarried southern whites, caught up in patriotic fervor, were ready to fight for the Confederacy.

Others viewed the conflict as a “rich man’s war” and saw no reason to leave family responsibilities to their wives and children in order to fight and possibly die in an irrelevant war.<sup>[1078]</sup> It made no difference to either side, the North or the South, whether the population had any interest in the battle. Those who the government expected to fill the military ranks were not willing to die in a war they did not create. On April 16, 1862, the Confederate Congress passed the first of three conscription acts, which authorized the president to draft men between the ages of eighteen to thirty-five for three years of military servitude. On September 27, 1862, the age was raised to forty-five. In February 1864, desperate for soldiers, the Confederacy drafted men from seventeen to fifty. Mandatory service embittered the populations on both sides of the conflict, as conscription was an infringement on individual freedom.

Reluctant soldiers demoralize military units. Individuals with sufficient money, property or influence, on both sides, could avoid military service by paying for substitutes or bribing local officials. The going rate in the South, after the draft, was \$500 payable to the government. The planter exemption excused men who owned twenty or more slaves. Then, like now, those who write the laws include self-interest loopholes. Officials placed the military burden on resource-poor immigrants and individuals, which imposed horrific hardships on their families and prompted the cry – a rich man’s war, a poor man’s fight.<sup>[1079]</sup> On April 15, 1865, Georgia’s *Early County News* reported, “This has been ‘a rich man’s war and a poor man’s fight.’ It is true that there are a few wealthy men in the army, but nine tenths of them hold positions, but always get out of the way when they think a fight is coming on, and treat the privates like dogs...there seems to be no chance to get this class to carry muskets.”<sup>[1080]</sup> Other exclusions in the South included medical, occupational and only-son exceptions. Consequently, there were justifiable charges of class discrimination in both the Union and the Confederacy.

Slave-owning planters had promised to grow sufficient food to accommodate the families of those who were fighting. Planter patriotism failed when it came to sacrificing cotton and tobacco, cash-crop profits in favor of growing food. In April 1861, raw cotton was selling for 12½ cents per pound. By 1864, raw cotton sold for \$1 a pound and by the war’s end, it had reached \$2 per pound. The Confederate Congress, composed of rich planters, never enacted a cotton embargo. Cotton-filled ships, despite the ongoing war, somehow managed, sometimes with assistance from federal agents, to make their way through the federal blockade, many going to the New Yorkers who made their own share of the big profits.<sup>[1081]</sup>

Northern textile mills depended upon southern-grown cotton, some of which they used to make Union military uniforms, tents and other war-related items. Despite the obvious implications, the trade was essential to the life-style survival of the southern plantation owners. The U.S. government permitted the trade under a license issued by the Treasury and the U.S. Army, sanctioned by Major-General Ulysses S. Grant within the Department of Tennessee, an administrative district of the Union Army. However, the system led to exploitation, corruption and black marketing of cotton as unlicensed traders bribed officials to allow them to buy southern cotton without a permit. Grant issued General Order No. 11 on December 17, 1862, which targeted the black market traders.

Planters planted sufficient food for their needs but devoted the majority of their land to cotton, despite regulations. The elite had sufficient food and forfeited very little of anything else because of the war. Several southern newspapers implored the planters to grow food as a patriotic and moral obligation. After all, it was the planters, including Robert Toombs, who pushed for secession and ultimately the war. Now General Toombs, evidently unconcerned for his men, planted almost 900 acres of cotton. The local Citizen’s Committee of Public Safety reproved Toombs and other planters for “contributing to the South’s food shortage.” He responded, “My property, as long as I live, shall never be subject to the orders of those cowardly miscreants, the Committee of Public Safety...You cannot intimidate me.”<sup>[1082]</sup> Further Toombs said, “Let the production and distribution of wealth alone, producers have nothing to do with

morality. That is a question for consumers, and not then for the legislative power.”<sup>[1083]</sup>

Conversely, Louisiana sugar growers switched to corn as early as January 1861. In Alabama, they planted more grain, raised more meat and stock. They even considered spinning and weaving their own clothes. Some Mississippi cotton planters supported their state’s secession by decreasing their cotton acreage by half. For patriotism’s sake, or from feeling guilty, many planters switched to food crops. Some greedy planters were so addicted to the profits that they would not switch to food production without coercion. Many planters obstinately planted whatever they wanted. Several states imposed regulations on the amount of cotton a planter could grow. Given the elite composition of many local governments, the regulations were not generally enforced.<sup>[1084]</sup>

By fall of 1862, cotton production was so excessive that burgeoning warehouses could not accept further shipments. The Confederate government, which favored cotton and tobacco production, ignored the complaints of worried, less affluent citizens. After all, the government was composed of cotton and tobacco planters. There might be as many as 180 to 200 ships from different countries waiting in line to be loaded. The planters also used the railway to transport cotton to the north, often hindering food shipments. At one point, a warehouse full of corn rotted because outbound trains loaded with cotton took priority. Wounded soldiers then, like now, were also low priority.<sup>[1085]</sup>

Economics influence political decisions more than any other issue. Regardless of humanitarian rhetoric, it is irrelevant when common citizens perish because of injury, death or starvation. Officials consider them collateral damage, then and now. Historian David Williams points out that in November 1862 Tallahassee’s *Florida Sentinel* revealed, “Speculation and extortion are the great enemies of the Confederate cause. The rage to run up prices is going to ruin us if anything else does. It is impossible to overrate the degree of uncertainty and alarm felt by the masses of the people from this cause alone.” Georgia’s *Early County News* also exposed some quartermaster officers who were selling army rations to speculators. Thereafter, the Confederate Congress prohibited the public from purchasing military supplies from *enlisted* men. Presumably, officers were exempt.<sup>[1086]</sup>

In 1863, to feed their hungry military forces, the Confederacy imposed a 10% tax-in-kind levy against numerous agricultural products and livestock. The government did not purchase but rather seized these items, an extreme measure. When this failed to provide adequate essentials, officials began to “impress” produce, livestock or anything else they could confiscate. Those with money and influence stripped the common people while avoiding the unethical appropriations. Often, the impressment agents, in their official capacity, pillaged animals that were essential to continued farm production, which naturally caused resentment. A Georgia newspaper advised citizens to resist the military’s impressment agents, otherwise “our military officers will soon think they own the whole country.”<sup>[1087]</sup>

Starving Confederate troops devoured everything in their path as they passed through the countryside. Civilians, who were also starving, resented the military seizures of their meager food supplies. As hunger increased, there were calls for the self-serving rich to share with the poor, especially the suffering families of the soldiers. Women often resorted to exchanging sexual favors for food in order to feed their children. Perhaps for political recognition, local officials half-heartedly attempted to raise funds; corrupt officials frequently retained those funds.<sup>[1088]</sup>

War profiteering industrialists, unconcerned about worker safety, secured profitable government contracts to produce armaments, then skimmed wages by hiring desperate laborers willing to accept low wages, an extortion of the labor market. The Confederacy did not interfere with the industrialists who subjected their employees to the despicable working conditions and the deadly dangers associated with explosive war materials production. There were numerous fatal industrial accidents, many involving women. As long as there was an abundant supply of military equipment, the Confederacy apparently felt no obligation to the

workers who produced it. The government paid top dollar for the armaments, distributed to the battlefield by the Ordnance Bureau.<sup>[1089]</sup>

The Mississippi Manufacturing Company, the state's second largest textile factory was the "Lowell of the South." It was located in the company-owned village of Bankston, in backcountry Choctaw County.<sup>[1090]</sup> By 1855, the company made substantial profits and continued to thrive, even during the economic crash of 1857. During the war, the company got many of its supplies from Mexico.<sup>[1091]</sup> When workers struck for better treatment and wages early in 1864, the owners asked that the Confederate cavalry disperse them.<sup>[1092]</sup>

With their heavy-handed approach, the Confederate government had endangered liberties in general. Robert Toombs criticized Jefferson Davis, reputedly a member of the Knights of the Golden Circle<sup>[1093]</sup>, for his authoritarianism that jeopardized any revitalization of "public liberty hereafter impossible without another bloody revolution." Allegedly, the Knights were under the direction of Albert Pike.<sup>[1094]</sup> By the end of the war, the planters were alienated from their own government and were increasingly disgusted with both Washington and Richmond. Toombs claimed that the Confederate government had rendered their rebellion "odious."<sup>[1095]</sup>

## **The Nullification Crisis, 1832-1833**

Henry Clay promoted his American System, a philosophy behind the Tariff of 1816, the Second Bank of the United States, and numerous internal improvements. By 1824, John C. Calhoun, a Southerner, who previously favored Clay's ideology, now opposed tariffs and publicly funded infrastructure development like roads. He viewed the protective tariff as an instrument that benefited the North at the expense of the South. Clay advocated a network of turnpikes, roads maintained by fees collected from travelers at numerous tollgates, after their tariff-financed construction. Governments first authorized turnpikes in England in 1346. Southerners would finance northern infrastructure that would exclusively benefit the North while burdening the South with taxes. Northern and western representatives, whose residents produced mostly for the domestic market, supported a protective tariff, as it did not affect their constituents. This lack of consideration initiated the tradition of antagonism between the South and the North.

On January 1, 1824, Congress enacted the protective Tariff of 1824 (Sectional Tariff of 1824). They designed it to protect American industry from the inflow of cheaper British commodities, particularly iron products, wool and cotton textiles, and agricultural goods. It was the second protective tariff and the first divide-and-conquer tariff where sectional interests ignited conflict between the North and the South. Congress, to promote nationalism, had enacted the Tariff of 1816 or Dallas Tariff following the War of 1812. Henry Clay promoted it after hearing a report from Treasury Secretary Alexander J. Dallas, a member of the Philosophical Society, who replaced his friend Gallatin and served under President James Madison. However, by 1824, people began promoting sectionalism over nationalism because of the mercantilism so prevalent in the northern part of the country. The two sections of the country were drastically different. The people in the North were more materialistic, had different educational and religious values, and many had adopted some very socialistic philosophies.

On May 19, 1828, the U.S. Congress enacted a protective tariff, part of a series of tariffs since the War of 1812, devised to protect certain industries in the North. President John Quincy Adams signed it into law, which probably cost him the 1828 reelection. Many southerners denounced it and called it the Tariff of Abominations because it drastically affected their economy and favored one sector of the country over another. The tariff's purpose was to protect northern industries, whose business was diminishing, from the effects of cheaper imported goods by taxing them. However, this required southerners to pay more for basic essentials that they did not produce. Further, British abolitionists pressured their government to

reduce their imports of cotton from the U.S., which essentially meant the South. The tariff forced southerners to purchase goods from U. S. manufacturers, mostly in the North, at higher prices. Meanwhile, the southern states experienced a diminished income from their sales of raw materials. It was a Catch-22, a no-win, “heads I win, tails you lose” situation. A reduction in their imports from Britain would alter Britain’s ability to pay for the cotton they imported from the South. By 1832, people in the South, particularly in South Carolina, began to react to the economic hardships resulting from the tariff, which led to what historians refer to as the Nullification Crisis of 1832.

On September 11, 1830, Vice President John C. Calhoun (1825-1832) wrote to Virgil Maxcy, a political ally, “I consider the Tariff, but as the occasion, rather than the real cause of the present unhappy state of things. The truth can no longer be disguised, that the peculiar domestick institution of the Southern States, and the consequent direction, which that and her soil and climate have given to her industry, have placed them in regard to taxation and appropriations in opposite relation to the majority of the Union; against the danger of which, if there be no protective power in the reserved rights of the States, they must in the end be forced to rebel, or submit to have their permanent interests sacrificed, their domestick institutions subverted by Colonization and other schemes, and themselves & children reduced to wretchedness. Thus situated, the denial of the right of the State to interfere constitutionally in the last resort, more alarms the thinking, than all other causes.”<sup>[1096]</sup>

On July 14, 1832, Congress enacted and President Andrew Jackson signed the Tariff of 1832 as a reduced tariff to counteract the conflict created by the protectionist tariff of 1828. Southerners and other groups affected by the high tariff rates justifiably felt that it was still unsatisfactory. The reduction was virtually insignificant and did not appease the opposition. Congress later lowered the tariff rate down to 35%, a reduction of 10% in an attempt to placate the south’s objections.

President Jackson attempted to prohibit the people of South Carolina from interpreting the Constitution according to their own understanding and hoisting legislation “upon the national government.” Certainly, the federal government did not want South Carolina “to empower its sister states by example.”<sup>[1097]</sup> Jackson initially spoke of this issue in his annual message on December 4, 1832. He wrote, “To preserve this bond of our political existence from destruction, to maintain inviolate this state of national honor and prosperity, and to justify the confidence my fellow-citizens have reposed in me, I, Andrew Jackson, President of the United States, have thought proper to issue this my proclamation, stating my views of the Constitution and laws applicable to the measures adopted by the convention of South Carolina and to the reasons they have put forth to sustain them, declaring the course which duty will require me to pursue, and, appealing to the understanding and patriotism of the people, warn them of the consequences that must inevitably result from an observance of the dictates of the convention.”<sup>[1098]</sup>

According to the people of South Carolina, Jackson failed to represent the best interests of the whole country when he did not address the preferential tariff issue. The Carolinians were bitter and resentful over his failures to consider the needs of the whole country instead of just the northern industrialists. People throughout the South, but especially in South Carolina, considered protective tariffs as unconstitutional, inexpedient, and inequitable. South Carolinians viewed the tariff as evidence of southern oppression, and they viewed nullification as the best solution. Calhoun, the movement’s principle advocate, in his Exposition (1828) and in his Fort Hill Address (1831), explained that states reserve the ultimate power to proclaim a federal law as unconstitutional and could thereafter make it invalid through state conventions.<sup>[1099]</sup>

On December 10, 1832, President Andrew Jackson, in an official proclamation, told the people of South Carolina that they had no right to nullify a federal law. He attacked the southerner’s position. In his Nullification Proclamation, Jackson called secession a “revolutionary act” that was to “be morally

justified by the extremity of oppression.” He claimed that a tariff, about to be changed, was not extreme oppression. He also said that it was not morally or legally justifiable. He warned South Carolina’s political leaders who he claimed were attempting to destroy the federal government that, “by the law of self-defence,” the federal government could repress “an attempt, by force of arms, to destroy a government.” Jackson would act to save the Union from “traitorous minorities, whether law-breakers called themselves Nullifiers or Disunionists.”<sup>[1100]</sup>

Amos Kendall, Francis P. Blair and Secretary of State Edward Livingston wrote Jackson’s Nullification Proclamation. Jackson rarely wrote any of his own presentations but generally relied on the assistance of Kendall, Blair and others in his cabinet. The proclamation stated that nullification was “incompatible with the existence of the Union, contradicted expressly by the letter of the Constitution, unauthorized by its spirit, inconsistent with every principle on which it was founded, and destructive of the great object for which it was formed.” Jackson, in his best persuasive rhetoric, urged every citizen to deliver their unequivocal support to the Union and “to inspire new confidence in republican institutions.”<sup>[1101]</sup> Of course, by then, the government had already abandoned even the semblance of a republican institution.

The nullifier leaders organized their forces and disseminated antagonistic attacks against the tariff and Jackson’s administration. In December 1831, Congress and Jackson had attempted to neutralize the dispute by suggesting a tariff rate reduction. Since the administration had been successful in reducing the national debt, it had the option of dramatically decreasing the tariff. Failure to do so would invariably point to the tendency to favor the nation’s manufacturing base as opposed to the agricultural base, the more independent faction of the nation. The nullifiers, with a majority of seats in the state legislature, responded by organizing a conference in Charleston beginning on November 19, 1832. The delegates accepted the Ordinance of Nullification, which proclaimed that the tariffs of 1828 and 1832 were invalid. Accordingly, beginning on February 1, 1833, officials would not impose import duties within the state of South Carolina. The delegates also decreed that if the federal government used military force against the state’s citizens, then the state would, by necessity, consider secession.”<sup>[1102]</sup>

Jackson’s proclamation was in response to South Carolina’s Ordinance of Nullification, adopted by a South Carolina convention on November 24, 1832, that stated that the tariff acts of 1828 and 1832 “are unauthorized by the constitution of the United States, and violate the true meaning and intent thereof and are null, void, and no law, nor binding upon this State.” John C. Calhoun, Jackson’s vice president at the time, led the nullifiers. On March 2, 1833, following Jackson’s proclamation, Congress enacted the Force Act that authorized the federal government to use military force against the people of any state who resisted the tariff acts.<sup>[1103]</sup> Apparently, Jackson viewed nullification as tantamount to treason and quickly dispatched ships to Charleston harbor and began strengthening the federal fortifications (co-owned by the state) there.

Martin Van Buren, of New York, discouraged Jackson from pursuing a battle with states’ rights constituents. He warned Jackson that if he continued in such a pursuit that it “is likely to bring you in collision” with our supporters, especially in “Virginia.” Yet, if he supported the nullifiers, Jackson’s southern faction would applaud. Southerners “disclaim indignantly the right of a state to resist the execution of the laws, whilst she is in the Union.” However, they heighten the “issue to include a state’s right to leave the Union.” Nevertheless, Jackson was adamant, he responded, “No, my friend, the crisis must now be met.” He felt that nullifiers were going to secede after nullification. He viewed both as “monstrosities” that had to be destroyed.<sup>[1104]</sup>

The Virginia legislature affirmed the power for any state to secede. U.S. Senator John Tyler, the future president from Virginia, was outraged at Jackson’s attack on secession and even considered leaving Jackson’s party. Many others felt the same way. For a party that supposedly embraced states’ rights, many

Southern Jacksonians viewed a party ready to fire on the citizens of a seceding state was apparently not a states' rights party after all.<sup>[1105]</sup>

On January 13, 1833, President Jackson wrote Vice President Van Buren to express his disapproval to South Carolina's insubordination to federal authority. He concluded, "Nothing must be permitted to weaken our government at home or abroad." In November 1832, through the influence of Thomas Cooper and others, leaders in South Carolina nullified a federal tariff that favored Northern manufacturing over Southern agriculture. Jackson's vice president at that time, John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina believed that states had a right to reject federal laws. Many people in South Carolina advocated the use of armed force to prohibit tariff collection in the state after February 1, 1833. Calhoun acquired his idea of nullification from the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions of 1798. Jackson did not support Calhoun's measure, revealed halfway through his term, a situation that created permanent friction between the president and vice president.<sup>[1106]</sup>

On January 16, 1833, Jackson sent a message to Congress denouncing the actions of some of the people in South Carolina. He requested a "confirmation" of his right to use "state militias and federal forces" against the "dissidents." His message generated the Force Bill, "to show the world" that the U.S. was ready to "to crush in an instant" rebellion and treason. Meanwhile, Gulian C. Verplanck of New York introduced legislation to reduce the tariff rates. Jackson preferred to postpone tariff reductions until they had put an end to South Carolina's nullification efforts.<sup>[1107]</sup> At the end of January, in Charleston, the crowd decided to delay nullification to give Congress an opportunity to deliberate on the tariff rates. Henry Clay and John C. Calhoun then proposed the Compromise Tariff. Jackson adopted Clay's bill as an administration piece of legislation. Congress passed both the Compromise Tariff and the Force Bill on March 2, 1833. When Jackson signed the Force Bill, before signing the Compromise Tariff, he stated that it gave "the death blow" to nullification.<sup>[1108]</sup>

Accordingly, to resolve the Nullification Crisis, Congress adopted the Tariff of 1833 or Compromise Tariff as a measure to decrease the tariff rates following the southerner's objections to the protectionist Tariff of 1832 (July 14, 1832) and the 1828 Tariff of Abominations (May 19, 1828). South Carolina threatened to secede from the Union. This Act stipulated that the federal government would gradually cut import taxes within the next decade, by 1842, until they equaled the amounts established by the Tariff of 1816, about 20%. However, the government maintained those compromise reductions until just before they were to become final. Members in the U.S. Congress reinstated protectionism for northern industry with the Black Tariff of 1842, to reverse the effects of the Compromise Tariff, which raised the tariff rates to almost 40%.

Jackson viewed nullification as a contemptible and said it an "abominable doctrine" that jeopardized the Union, which he considered "perpetual." He felt that "it violated the principle of majority rule," a very tyrannical view diametrically opposed to the "Law of the People" wherein everyone is free. He said that nullification "will dissolve the Union."<sup>[1109]</sup> What he might have been saying is nullification would restrict the federal government from imposing unjust laws on the people.

# Preparing for the Revolution

## Mexico, then Cuba, Imperialistic Targets

### The Provocation

Chief Justice Roger B. Taney administered the oath of office to the newly elected President James K. Polk,<sup>[1110]</sup> a Freemason and an expansionist, on March 4, 1845, the first inauguration reported by telegraph. He accepted the imperialistic view that the U.S. had a “right” to Texas, formerly a part of Mexico, from 1821 to 1836, when it became an independent Republic. Mexico refused to recognize its independence but it was already a reality. Polk’s election was, as President Tyler surmised, a mandate for annexation. Tyler, in the last hours of his administration, received a joint resolution from Congress. Texas did not ratify it immediately but Polk considered it a part of the U.S. and entitled to military protection.<sup>[1111]</sup> The boundary was also in dispute, involving land, 120 miles wide, between the Nueces River and the Rio Grande. Texas claimed this territory while Mexico claimed that it belonged to the states of Tamaulipas and Nuevo León. It was really of little consequence but Polk viewed it as significant as he had objectives on land far beyond just Texas. Polk and his collaborators would manipulate this land issue to provoke a military incident where they could soon acquire the land on the Pacific coast, territory that became the State of California. Military assertiveness was the first step.<sup>[1112]</sup>

Accordingly, on April 23, 1845, General Zachary Taylor, a Freemason, took command of U.S. troops on the Rio Grande, the Army of Occupation. In mid-June 1845, before Texas officials ratified the state’s annexation, President Polk directed War Secretary William Marcy to deploy Taylor’s troops to a point south of the Nueces.<sup>[1113]</sup> On June 24, 1845, because the U.S. government had strained its relationship with Mexico, George Bancroft, Secretary of the Navy ordered Commodore John Drake Sloat of the Pacific Squadron to avoid any act that they might interpret as aggression but to be vigilant.<sup>[1114]</sup> Taylor and his men were to treat any Mexican troops they encountered with courtesy. He already had between 3,000 and 4,000 troops at Fort Jesup, Louisiana. By the end of July, he moved his forces to Corpus Christi, just inside the disputed area. Polk’s intentions were obvious. He was not going to make any aggressive military moves, just send in the troops and wait for an inevitable incident between two antagonistic military groups and then lay the blame on Mexico for initiating a war. Taylor was still at Corpus Christi on January 1, 1846.<sup>[1115]</sup>

Meanwhile, in November 1845, President Polk, allegedly attempting diplomacy, sent John Slidell to Mexico. Slidell was a shirttail relative of Rothschild agent, August Belmont and a former member of Aaron Burr’s New York political machine. Slidell, an obvious choice for the questionable peace mission, arrived in Mexico City on December 6, 1845. Polk directed him to reaffirm the Monroe Doctrine, offer \$25 million for what then constituted New Mexico and California, discuss the long unpaid claims against Mexico by U.S. citizens and to establish the Rio Grande as the acknowledged boundary and to transfer the disputed strip to Texas.<sup>[1116]</sup> American expansionists wanted California in order to acquire a Pacific Ocean port. Polk authorized Slidell to forgive the \$3 million due to U.S. citizens who suffered damages during the Mexican War of Independence (1810–1821) if they accepted the proposals. Mexico rejected all offers, Slidell left in March 1846, convinced that the U.S. should chastise Mexico for their decisions.<sup>[1117]</sup>

The U.S. claimed that the Rio Grande was the border, based on the Velasco Treaties, of April 21, 1836, and May 14, 1836, between Mexico and the Republic of Texas, following the Texas Revolution that lasted from October 2, 1835 to April 21, 1836. However, Mexico had never officially ratified those treaties. General Antonio López de Santa Anna, known as Santa Anna or López de Santa Anna, former and future President of Mexico, had signed them, under duress, when his opponents imprisoned him in

Velasco for six months. At the time he signed them, he did not hold the office of president, a position he had nine times, both before and after the Mexican-American War. The U.S. officially annexed Texas on December 29, 1845. In January 1846, General Taylor received new orders – march to the disputed boundary, the Rio Grande and take up a position. However, try not to do anything to antagonize the Mexicans.<sup>[1118]</sup> How preposterous, obviously the Mexican troops would react to the presence of antagonistic U.S. troops over an ongoing dispute over this strip of land. Inevitably, clashes would occur between Mexican troops and the U.S. forces. These would provide the rationale for a Congressional declaration of war on May 13, 1846.<sup>[1119]</sup> Because Polk anticipated and conceivably hoped that Mexico would make the first move, he put U.S. troops in a very vulnerable, dangerous position.

On April 25, 1846, the Mexican cavalry attacked a group of seventy men led by Captain Seth Thornton. The Mexicans killed sixteen of Thornton's and five suffered wounds. The Mexicans took Thornton and forty-nine of his men as prisoners. Polk notified Congress that Mexico had initiated a war against the U.S. so Congress declared war against Mexico on May 13, 1846. His superiors ordered Commodore Sloat to blockade any and all ports as soon as possible. The U.S. fleet had already blockaded Vera Cruz. Sloat proceeded to Mazatlan to verify information about Mexico's attack and on May 17, 1846, learned of Thornton's defeat. He quickly executed his blockade orders.<sup>[1120]</sup>

Just before the impending Mexican-American War, Texas officials issued numerous bonds, which Jay Cooke, as E. W. Clark's employee, sold. If the U.S. won the war, the nation would annex Texas, even before the war erupted, and the bonds would increase in value. Government officials, recognizing the probabilities, bought more bonds than anyone else did. Initially, the Whig Party and the northern states vehemently opposed the war but the potential insider profits acquired through "public plunder" dispelled all opposition and any moral outrage against war. E. W. Clark and Company, Cooke and many others soon discovered that their greatest profits resulted from war.<sup>[1121]</sup>

### John Anthony Quitman, Freemason



John Anthony Quitman, plantation and slave owner was the Whig governor of Mississippi (1835-1836) and again as a Democrat (1850-1851). He was president of the Mississippi Railroad Company, president of the Mississippi Cotton Company, had a directorship of the Planter's Bank, had a lucrative law practice, admitted to the bar in Natchez, Mississippi, and owned or supervised cotton and sugar plantations with 150 slaves. He was the captain of the Natchez Fencibles, a Grand Master Freemason, president of the local Anti-Abolition Society, and president of the Adams County Anti-Gambling Society, and a trustee of Jefferson College and a trustee of Natchez Academy.<sup>[1122]</sup> Overtly, he was, for all practical purposes, a socially acceptable member of the local and state community.

Quitman moved to Mississippi to become Grand Master of that state, a position he held for seventeen years. His dedication to the Masonic agenda assisted him in establishing a significant network of political connections.<sup>[1123]</sup> His grandfather, his mother's father, had been the governor of Curaçao, the Dutch West India Company's slave center. His father, German-born Reverend Frederick Henry Quitman and mother, Anna Elizabeth, fled to New York with their slaves during the Caribbean slave revolts. The first was the Haitian Revolution, which began in 1791, led by Toussaint L'Ouverture, culminating in the independent

black republic of Haiti. Tula, a slave, led the slave revolt in Curaçao, beginning in 1795 for which government officials executed him on October 3, 1795. As early as 1830, Quitman established Freemasonry in Mississippi in order to initiate a secession movement in that state.<sup>[1124]</sup> In 1863, the Dutch abolished slavery in Curaçao and allowed many of its residents to emigrate to Cuba and other islands where they worked on the sugarcane plantations.

When the Mexican-American War began, Quitman enlisted and became a Brigadier General of Volunteers serving first under General Taylor. He later joined Winfield Scott's expedition. Scott was also a Freemason. Quitman entered Mexico City on September 14, 1847 at the head of the Fourth Division of Scott's army.<sup>[1125]</sup> He occupied Mexico City as Military Governor and advised President Polk that the U.S. should forcibly annex all of Mexico rather than just California and Texas because Mexico would be an excellent area for plantations.<sup>[1126]</sup> He received a military discharge on July 20, 1848 and returned to Mississippi.

## The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo

On December 7, 1847, in his Third Annual Message to Congress, President James K. Polk, said, "In the enjoyment of the bounties of Providence at home such as have rarely fallen to the lot of any people, it is cause of congratulation that our intercourse with all the powers of the earth except Mexico continues to be of an amicable character." He claimed that it was "our cherished policy to cultivate peace and good will with all nations," a course that he "steadily pursued." He also reiterated that Mexico forced the U.S. to engage in war.<sup>[1127]</sup>

Polk referred back to his message of May 11, 1846 when he spoke of "the serious causes of complaint which we had against Mexico before she commenced hostilities." He referred to the present and "the wanton violation of the rights of person and property of our citizens committed by Mexico, her repeated acts of bad faith through a long series of years, and her disregard of solemn treaties stipulating for indemnity to our injured citizens not only constituted ample cause of war on our part, but were of such an aggravated character as would have justified us before the whole world in resorting to this extreme remedy." He claimed that he had "an anxious desire to avoid a rupture between the two countries, we forbore for years to assert our clear rights by force, and continued to seek redress for the wrongs we had suffered by amicable negotiation in the hope that Mexico might yield to pacific counsels and the demands of justice." President Polk said, "The Mexican Government refused even to hear the terms of adjustment which he (Slidell) was authorized to propose, and finally, under wholly unjustifiable pretexts, involved the two countries in war by invading the territory of the State of Texas, striking the first blow, and shedding the blood of our citizens on our own soil."<sup>[1128]</sup>

American officials devised the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, the peace treaty that ended the Mexican-American War (1846-18 48), signed on February 2, 1848. The U.S. defeated the Mexican Army and General Winfield Scott toppled Mexico's capital in August 1847. The city of Guadalupe Hidalgo was north of the capital where Mexican government officials had fled as U.S. troops advanced. Mexican officials surrendered and they began the negotiations to end the war. Nicholas Trist, of the State Department and President Polk's representative, and General Scott presided over the peace talks. Trist and General Scott had attempted unsuccessfully to negotiate with Santa Anna previously. Don Bernardo Couto, Don Miguel Atristain, and Don Luis Gonzaga Cuevas represented the interests of Mexico. Scott and Trist insisted that Mexico cede Upper California and New Mexico to the U.S. in what they called the Mexican Cession. This included present-day Arizona and New Mexico and parts of Utah, Nevada, and Colorado, about 525,000 square miles.<sup>[1129]</sup>

The treaty mandated that Mexico relinquish the said land in exchange for \$15 million (equivalent to \$380

million today) as compensation for war-related damage to Mexican property. The U.S. also assumed the \$3.25 million that Mexico owed U.S. citizens. Mexico owed millions of dollars to the Rothschild bankers at this time, and presumably, the Mexican officials gave the majority of the cash to them.<sup>[1130]</sup> The House of Rothschild had interests in Havana as early as 1837, when they sent Belmont there to develop the sugar, cotton, tobacco and coffee trade but Barings handled most of Havana's sugar business. In 1849, during his visit to Cuba, Baron Alphonse Rothschild stated, "The sugar business here is a monopoly of the exporters, Drake, Burnham, Picard and Albert. However they are not doing the most important or weighty business; this is being done by Baring, Coutts, and Fruhling & Goschen in London, who are making all of the profit from commission, credits and consignments." Barings and Fruhling & Goschen were key Rothschild rivals.<sup>[1131]</sup> The Rothschilds had numerous financial interests in North and South America, the Caribbean, and Mexico. In addition, the Rothschilds functioned as financiers to many other countries. They loaned money to finance Brazil's coffee production and had been Brazil's bankers since 1840.<sup>[1132]</sup>

The Treaty also required that Mexico cede Texas, another 389,166 square miles, in as much as Mexico had never officially recognized the independence of the Republic of Texas (1836) or the U.S. annexation of the state (1845). Consequently, Mexico lost about 55% of its prewar territory. The treaty also stipulated that the Rio Grande function as the Texas border. The treaty provided for the protection of the civil rights and property of about 80,000 Mexican nationals living within the new borders. The U.S. promised to control its side of the border and fairly arbitrate any future disputes between the two countries. The U.S. Senate ratified the treaty on March 10, 1848. However, it deleted Article X guaranteeing the protection of Mexican land grants. After the Senate's ratification, the U.S. troops left Mexico City.<sup>[1133]</sup>

Mexicans refer to the Mexican-American War as The North American Intervention (La Intervención Norteamericana). Mexico initially claimed and sparsely settled some portion of the area in question from the time of its independence from Spain after the Mexican War of Independence (1810-1821). Spain had subdued the indigenous population and had seized territory over the previous three centuries. Some Indian tribes remained powerful and independent within the northern section of Mexico. Because the land was somewhat inhospitable due to low rainfall, people did not settle there until others invented new methods of irrigation and until the area opened up after the advent of the telegraph; the railroad; the telephone; and later, electrical power.

The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo gave the United States land that now comprises what became part of the State of California (1850), Nevada (1864) Colorado (1876), Wyoming (1890), Utah (1896), New Mexico (1912), part of Kansas (1912) and Arizona (1912) as well as the entire State of Texas. The U.S., via the 1853 Gadsden Purchase, acquired the southern parts of New Mexico and Arizona. The U.S. paid an additional \$10 million for this land, as U.S. officials intended to construct a transcontinental railroad west from the State of Georgia, through Texas, through El Paso, all the way to San Diego, California. This plan never came to fruition though they did build a railroad farther north between Tucson, Phoenix, and other locations to the west.

The Mexican-American War (April 25, 1846 - February 2, 1848) with its resulting land acquisitions altered the Indian's relatively peaceful existence west of the Mississippi. Opportunists, looking for gold, went west on the Santa Fe Trail and along the Platte and the Sweetwater. The U.S. opened routes through Texas for a continuous stream of freight and supplies for the army on the Rio Grande. The gold discovery at Pike's Peak in 1858 brought an onslaught of people to Colorado.<sup>[1134]</sup>

## **The Havana Club**

An aristocratic group of Cuban Freemason plantation owners, known as the Havana Club, created in

1848, advocated the overthrow of the Spanish colonial government in Cuba. They were worried that Spain would adopt England and France's abolitionist policies and ruin Cuba's sugar economy from which they profited. The Havana Club sent New York City-educated Ambrosio José Gonzales, a twenty-nine year old college professor and Freemason to meet with William Jenkins Worth, a Freemason and a Mexican war hero. Gonzales offered Worth \$3 million to hire 5,000 veterans to invade Cuba. Worth accepted the proposal, which included his share of \$100,000. Worth and Gonzales then traveled to meet West Point Professor Woodson Smith, a Freemason, and others who were sympathetic towards the Cuban's campaign for emancipation from Spain. Then, unexpectedly, the War Department transferred Worth to Texas where he contracted cholera and died shortly after his arrival.<sup>[1135]</sup> Horace Greeley, a Freemason,<sup>[1136]</sup> referred to General Worth as "the last of our military Illuminati."<sup>[1137]</sup>



The Havana Club then made their proposal to Whig leader Caleb Cushing, also a Freemason, who then introduced Gonzales to President Polk.<sup>[1138]</sup> Cushing, a pro-slavery politician and William H. Russell were business partners. Cushing's family made their fortune through opium trafficking. Russell, with Alphonso Taft, co-founded Skull and Bones at Yale University (1833), probably an Illuminati chapter. He had been in Germany (1831-1832), where he learned about Hegel, who was "almost certainly Illuminati" and adopted their principle that "the end justifies the means."<sup>[1139]</sup>

Cushing, because of pressing family matters, could not join the invasion. Gonzales remained in Washington where he met several sympathetic politicians including Senator Stephen Douglas and Senator Daniel Dickinson, both Freemasons. In June, the conspirators adopted a flag on which they imposed an equilateral triangle and the five-pointed star from the Texas flag for their Masonic significance. They began recruiting for the Cuban invasion in July 1849 in New York City, Boston, Baltimore and New Orleans. About 400 conspirators attempted to assemble a military contingency on Round Island, three miles south of Pascagoula, Mississippi. However, President Zachary Taylor took office on March 4, 1849. He discovered the plan and on August 11, 1849 and ordered the navy to blockade the island. The conspirators dispersed but did not abandon their plans.<sup>[1140]</sup>

In September 1849, Gonzales met John Henderson, a Freemason, lawyer and former Mississippi senator and a Quitman crony. In 1836, Quitman had fought for the independence of Texas, considered a Masonic state. They intended to motivate the Cubans to revolt instead of mounting a military invasion. Quitman planned to resign as governor and lead the expedition to reinforce General López, a Freemason and leader of the people's revolt in Cuba's central Trinidad region. He and his followers fled to the U.S. on July 4, 1848 when officials discovered the plot. He, for a time, resided with Laurent Sigur, editor of the *New Orleans Delta*. Sigur's father founded the first Masonic Temple in Louisiana in 1794.<sup>[1141]</sup> It is significant that certain Cubans attempted to initiate a revolution in Cuba at the same time that others were revolting in several places in Europe.

In the fall of 1849, Quitman convened an assembly of anti-Union agents operating throughout the South. They organized a secession convention in Nashville with delegates from nine states from June 3-12, 1850 to orchestrate the breakup of the U.S. Quitman determined to lead a private army to conquer New Mexico, a new territory recently acquired from Mexico through the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. He thought that this would provoke an immediate war between the North and the South. On June 21, 1850, President

Taylor, aware of the conspirators, had Quitman arrested and indicted for violating U.S. Neutrality Laws for his involvement in the well-financed conspiracy to emancipate Cuba from Spain. On July 3, 1850, President Taylor threatened to execute those who were planning rebellion against the Union. The court delayed Quitman's prosecution because of President Taylor's sudden death.<sup>[1142]</sup> The court, during the ultimate trial, acquitted Quitman and he went on to win a seat in Congress.

Known as "Old Rough and Ready," President Taylor (1784-1850), a Freemason and Southern slaveholder, opposed the spread of slavery into the territories. He had never held a political office. Officials from the Whig Party recruited him to run for president in 1848, after Lincoln ascertained that he was truly a big government Whig. The citizens elected Taylor as president and he served from March 4, 1849 to July 9, 1850.

On July 4, 1850, the Freemasons held a huge celebration, attended by twenty-one lodges, to lay the cornerstone of the Washington Monument. Workers would complete the Egyptian obelisk, a phallic symbol, ultimately measuring 555 feet in height in 1884. Taylor attended the celebration, and although enemies surrounded him, he did not imagine that someone would attempt to kill him, especially other Freemasons. They do kill their own noncompliant members. President Taylor immediately became ill after consuming iced cherries and milk and samples of several dishes given to him by well-wishing citizens. Arsenic was then the poison of choice for eliminating people. It may cause nausea, vomiting, abdominal pain, and diarrhea. He exhibited all of those symptoms and died five days later on July 9, 1850. He had been engaged in numerous quarrels over slavery and succession. Taylor, a slaveholder, was Jefferson Davis' father-in-law, and he supported California's admission to the Union as a free state, but opposed succession. Vice President Millard Fillmore, a Northerner, sympathetic to the South, assumed the presidency and facilitated the Compromise of 1850, legislation that Taylor had opposed.

In 1991, Professor Clara Rising requested that authorities exhume Zachary Taylor's body. Oak Ridge National Laboratory tested samples of his hair and fingernails to evaluate any residual arsenic residue. The results, according to the *New York Times*, revealed that Taylor died of severe gastroenteritis, which includes nausea, vomiting, abdominal pain, and diarrhea.<sup>[1143]</sup> The Oak Ridge National Laboratory, established as part of the Manhattan Project in 1943, is just one of the national laboratories under the jurisdiction of the U.S. Department of Energy. The University of Tennessee and Battelle Memorial Institute currently manage the facility in a 50-50 limited liability partnership. It began in 1929 in Columbus, Ohio, as a non-profit charitable trust with annual revenues of more than \$3 billion. Yale-educated Gordon Battelle launched the facility. He was the son of the president of the Columbus Iron & Steel Company. The Institute researches issues like global climate change, sustainable energy, and healthcare.

Yale-educated John M. Clayton was Taylor's Secretary of State. Clayton was an ardent Federalist, politician and lawyer who supported Henry Clay's Socialist American System. Clayton embraced Anglo-American friendship, stressed U.S. economic expansion, especially into the Pacific markets. He negotiated the U.S. treaty with Hawaii but failed to secure a commercial treaty with Japan, which led to Matthew C. Perry's expeditions to Japan (1853-1854). Clayton negotiated the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, April 19, 1850, an indication that the U.S. intended to expand her foreign commercial efforts and alleviate the Anglo-American tensions generated by the Nicaragua canal project.<sup>[1144]</sup>

An army, according to the constitution, is for defense only. In 1850, the military had increased to almost 14,000 men and the military budget increased from a million dollars in 1845 to about \$5 million by 1851. The military posts in 1845 were adjacent to rivers for easy access to supplies. Those in the 1850s were in sparsely inhabited land, which increased transportation costs for supplies. Cavalry horses needed food that was not always naturally available.<sup>[1145]</sup> Congressional pleas for a larger Army to accommodate the

needs of the frontier resulted in fifty-four new stations in the west.

Since the national domain had increased because of the war against Mexico, some argued that an army was essential to police it. During the 1850s, Congress grudgingly agreed but took no actions. On July 6, 1848, President Polk informed Congress that the army, as it existed before the Mexican War, would suffice for peacetime. By the end of the year, prospectors discovered gold in California. In 1848, Treasury Secretary Robert Walker argued that the Indian Bureau should promote peace and not war and should be detached from the War Department.<sup>[1146]</sup> Polk authorized a military force of more than 10,000 officers and men.

In the summer of 1851, after Quitman's exoneration, he traveled with fellow Mississippian, Jefferson Davis to Boston to collaborate with Whig leader Caleb Cushing on the most appropriate Democrat presidential candidate for 1852. They decided on Franklin Pierce, a Freemason and a Mexican War ally. August Belmont, Democratic Party boss financed Pierce's presidential campaign. After Pierce's victory, he appointed Belmont chargé d'affaires and Minister for the United States at The Hague.<sup>[1147]</sup> Belmont amply rewarded the conspirators, Quitman, Cushing and Davis, when they got their man into the White House. Pierce appointed Cushing, as the Attorney General and Jefferson Davis became Secretary of War (1853-1857).

Secretary Davis and other Southerners promoted the enlargement of the military and a standing army, allegedly for frontier defense.<sup>[1148]</sup> In 1854, Davis demonstrated with statistics that the Indian population was more than 400,000 of which 40,000 might be warriors, just waiting for the opportunity to attack.<sup>[1149]</sup> He said, "It is argued that if we raise volunteers they can be got rid of...we can get rid of the Treasury of the United States in the same way." In addition, the authorization for border volunteers was really a mandate "to exterminate the Indians."<sup>[1150]</sup> Davis maintained, in the *New York Times* in 1886, that he was never a Freemason.<sup>[1151]</sup> Other sources claim that he was. Pierce was a cousin to James Garfield, Grover Cleveland and Benjamin Harrison.<sup>[1152]</sup> Pierce is allegedly a blood relative of Barbara Pierce Bush.

After the presidential inauguration in 1853, Quitman agreed to direct the Cuban revolution, after their failed first attempt. He would receive \$1 million out of the earnings of the bonds that the financiers had provided. He recruited several thousand mercenaries but Spanish authorities squelched the plot and emancipated, and then armed most of Cuba's slaves. Officials arrested Captain James D. Bulloch, Quitman's criminal crony, when he brought his ship into Havana Harbor. Slidell demanded that the government repeal the U.S. neutrality laws and Cushing, now Attorney General, asked for sanctions around Cuba. Quitman relented and his mercenaries dispersed into another organization, the Knights of the Golden Circle.<sup>[1153]</sup>

Again, in 1855, per Davis' recommendation, they raised the number to 18,000 military personnel and created four new regiments. The government sent troops to Kansas to keep the peace between the slavery and free-soil forces. During 1857-59, they sent troops to Utah to coerce the Mormons to submit to U.S. authority.<sup>[1154]</sup>

An article in *The New York Times* of June 12, 1856 claims that John Slidell, the U.S. Congressman from Louisiana (1853-1861) was an unscrupulous politician, a native of New York who went to New Orleans in about 1819 "to introduce the New York system of politics." In 1856, Isaiah Rynders of New York and his Empire Club, consisting of 250 men, tried to persuade James Buchanan to accept the presidential nomination against incumbent Franklin Pierce. Buchanan was the Master of the Masonic Lodge #43 in Lancaster, Pennsylvania, and a District Deputy Grand Master of the Grand Lodge of Pennsylvania. Belmont who promised another \$80,000 if the delegates nominated Buchanan financed their trip. Slidell devised the Plaquemine Fraud, aided by money from his nephew, Belmont. The Plaquemine Fraud was a scheme to steal Louisiana's electoral vote in order for Buchanan to win the presidential election.<sup>[1155]</sup>

On February 23, 1857, President Elect James Buchanan and a few friends met at the National Hotel in Washington, DC where they had a reserved table. Buchanan was a habitual tea drinker, typical for many Northerners. Purportedly, conspirators sprinkled arsenic into the sugar bowls destined for his table. Approximately fifty to sixty persons dined at that table that evening. Allegedly thirty-eight of them died because of what some suspected as deliberate poisoning. Buchanan was poisoned but recovered through the quick actions of his doctor and was inaugurated on March 4, 1857.<sup>[1156]</sup> It might have been something altogether different, a factor, like food poisoning, unknown at the time.

In 1858, Senator John P. Hale (1847-1853; 1855-1865) of New Hampshire reminded Congress that, according to the Constitution, which he hoped would endure, that standing armies are dangerous to liberty. To bypass the constitution and increase the military informally, officials encouraged the enrollment of volunteer units to fight Indians. Volunteers, like paid mercenaries, are less amenable to control. Volunteerism was a device for funneling public monies into the deep, private pockets of well-connected citizens.<sup>[1157]</sup>

## **Lincoln, an Illinois Whig**

Lincoln's political idol was Henry Clay, a Freemason, was the Grand Master of Masons in Kentucky during 1820-1821. Though Lincoln was not a Freemason, it is possible that some of Clay's Masonic involvement influenced his beliefs.<sup>[1158]</sup> Lincoln, though invited to join, opted to wait until he was out of office. Clay was a U.S. Senator and the Speaker of the House of Representatives who advocated programs to modernize the economy, advocated programs to revise the economy, establish a central bank, empower the federal government, and enact high protectionist tariffs only for certain industries, which resulted in the form of corporate welfare. He favored foreign expansion and overseas markets. Lincoln was an advocate of the American system, actually the British system, and a legacy of Alexander Hamilton. Lincoln urged the Illinois state government to create and subsidize new ports, and other infrastructure such as canals and railroads. The problem with this system is that the taxpayers usually foot the bill while big, politically connected corporations make huge profits. The Illinois and Michigan Canal nearly bankrupted the state until foreigners invested in the project.<sup>[1159]</sup> Illinois-style politics is Lincoln's legacy.

The Whigs, who were purveyors of the American System, believed, "The appropriate function of Government is a parental care of the people." Especially during a depression, the Whigs believed that a beneficent government should take steps to repair the economy rather than leave it to the people and the free market. Whigs argued that, during good times, private capital was insufficient for economic development. They maintained that the national government should function in a managerial capacity of the people. Whigs promoted the idea that state governments should give special privileges to corporations, including limited liability to entice capital to them. From their perspective, the economy needed government subsidies to expand and prosperity depended on institutions that only the government could initiate – banks, manufacturing firms, or private canal building and railroad corporations, all subsidized with public funds. Others viewed this methodology as favoritism of the rich at the expense of the middle class.<sup>[1160]</sup>

In March 1832, Abraham Lincoln (1809-1865) announced his candidacy for the Illinois General Assembly but he was unsuccessful in his bid. However, Illinois residents elected Lincoln, a Whig, when he ran again in 1834. He studied to become a lawyer and officials admitted him to the bar in 1837. Thereafter, he moved to Springfield, Illinois and went into practice under John T. Stuart. Lincoln was a member of the Illinois House of Representatives for four two-year consecutive terms as a Whig representative from Sangamon County. He had argued over 200 cases before the Illinois Supreme Court but failed, as demonstrated by his later actions, to apply simple constitutional principles.

In 1837 and 1838, Illinois had lost \$12 million dollars and accrued a mountain of debt through a state-subsidized project to widen and deepen every canal, a scheme that Lincoln had fervently backed. He wanted to construct a canal to the Illinois River then to Lake Michigan in order to make Illinois the “Empire State of the Union.” He also wanted to be the Clinton DeWitt of Illinois. Despite the ineffectiveness and financial abuse of the Illinois program, he continued to promote the Whig’s American System, which advocated, not just state subsidies, but the use of federal subsidies for internal improvements, including public funds for private railroad and canal-building corporations. Several states, those entering the Union in the 1860s, wrote their constitutions to prohibit such subsidies.<sup>[1161]</sup> One of the South’s biggest complaints against the North was their use of the majority of the tariffs for internal improvements made exclusively in the North. There was major opposition to state subsidies by 1861, especially from southerners.

On December 26, 1839, Lincoln, a Whig, gave a speech against the Independent Treasury System, an arrangement whereby the government would maintain its funds in the Treasury and its subsidiaries, independent of a national banking and financial system. Officials passed the legislation in July 1840, despite Whig opposition. Lincoln, in 1840 and 1844, functioned as the Whig’s preeminent presidential elector in Illinois. He traveled throughout Illinois, powerfully promoting and defending Whig financial policies like a national bank, protective tariffs, and the distribution of federal land revenues to the states.<sup>[1162]</sup> Essentially, according to Frederic Bastiat, protectionism, socialism, and communism are the same plant in three different stages of its growth. In protectionism, the plunder is limited to specific groups and industries.<sup>[1163]</sup> Lincoln was a protégé of Henry Clay, the Father of the American System, really a spin-off of Hamilton’s Federalist system. In 1840, Lincoln grounded his campaign efforts for William Henry Harrison on the need for a national bank that could provide *credit* to the average person.<sup>[1164]</sup> The Whigs argued that a national bank would reverse the decreasing economy, the same rhetoric that the international bankers disseminated immediately following the orchestrated Panic of 1907.

The citizens’ elected Whig candidate William Henry Harrison (1773-1841), a Virginia aristocrat promoted as the common man, as president in 1840. He had studied medicine under Dr. Benjamin Rush at the University of Pennsylvania until his father died in 1790, leaving him with no funds. His family’s administrators placed Harrison under the guardianship of Robert Morris, the “Financier of the Revolution” who he had boarded with when he was a student. In the election of 1840, the Whigs also recaptured both houses of the legislature. Harrison’s Whig supporters immediately wanted him to repeal the Independent Treasury Act. President Harrison scheduled a special session of Congress to discuss the issue. Harrison was inaugurated president on March 4, 1841. He became ill with a cold on March 26; it quickly developed into pneumonia and pleurisy. His doctor was Dr. Frederick May who had been trained by Dr. John Warren and Dr. William Eustis (both Freemasons). The treatments of opium, castor oil and Virginia snakeweed made him even sicker. He became delirious and died on April 4, 1841, just short of thirty-two days into his administration. His death created a state of confusion regarding the process of succession in the event of a presidential death.

After the Cabinet consulted with Chief Justice of the Supreme Court Roger B. Taney, John Tyler assumed the presidency on April 6, 1841, the first president to obtain that lofty position without the benefit of an election. He was a Freemason, pro-secessionist, and a member of Virginia’s slave-owning elite. John Smith Dye in his 1964 book *The Adder’s Den* claims that pro-slavery agents poisoned Harrison in order to put Tyler, possibly a person who would be more compliant to their interests, in the White House.<sup>[1165]</sup>

President John Tyler appointed Bostonian Caleb Cushing as Secretary of the Treasury but the Senate refused to confirm him. Therefore, on May 8, 1843, Tyler appointed him as U.S. Envoy to China’s Qing Empire, a position he held until March 4, 1845. Cushing’s family, as well as many others, made a fortune

trading opium in China.<sup>[1166]</sup> Tyler then appointed Thomas Ewing, father of the Union Army general, as Treasury Secretary. Ewing, the stepfather of William T. Sherman, also became the first Secretary of the Interior on March 8, 1849. On June 7, 1843, under the direction of Henry Clay, the House began writing bills to increase tariffs while the Senate structured bills to repeal the Independent Treasury Act, initiate a new national bank, and allocate land revenues.<sup>[1167]</sup>

The Whigs unsuccessfully attempted to establish a national bank with the Fiscal Bank Act of August 7, 1841 but President Tyler (1841-1845) vetoed the bill. The Whigs, especially those in New England, were adamant about repealing the Independent Treasury Act in 1842 but officials passed it again in 1846 under James Knox Polk (1845-1849). In 1846, President Polk vetoed a bill mandating appropriations for internal improvements because he determined such actions violated the Constitution in two ways – the Federal Government is not empowered to make internal improvements in the States nor take funds from the treasury for those purposes.

The Independent Treasury System removed government funds from privately owned banks and mandated that the government transact all business in specie or Treasury notes. They enacted the bill in 1846 and it became effective as of January 1, 1847 with a stipulation regarding specie and Treasury notes that became effective on April 1, 1847.<sup>[1168]</sup> This system functioned until the Lincoln administration enacted legislation in 1863 and 1864, which created national banks. The Whigs won the 1848 elections but they did not attempt to create another national bank.<sup>[1169]</sup>

Horace Greeley wrote an editorial in 1845 denouncing the Democrats (Loco-Foco Party), the party of discord,” for causing the depression of 1837. He accused the Democrats who opposed the Whig idea of a Nation as “an agency of the community” and the champion of general or “united interests.” Greeley wrote, “THE COMMONWEALTH is the term best expressing the Whig idea of a State or Nation, and our philosophy regards a Government with hope and confidence, as an agency of the community through which vast and beneficent ends may be accomplished.” Meanwhile the Democrats viewed the government with distrust, “an agency of corruption, oppression, and robbery.”<sup>[1170]</sup>

In March 1848, as the presidential campaigns were gearing up for November, as proof of Zachary Taylor’s Whig credentials, Lincoln wrote a letter for Taylor to sign that promised, if elected president, he would not veto a national bank, protective tariffs or permit slavery in any territorial acquisition from Mexico. Lincoln had some reservations about Taylor, as he was a large slaveholder.<sup>[1171]</sup>

The Whig Party, which evolved from the big government Federalist Party, and had now evolved into the Republican Party in about 1854. In 1856, Lincoln had spoken before Congress and requested an “extension of the Federal powers.” Additionally, the Republicans made federal-sponsored internal improvements part of their first platform, another step towards the development of the New Nationalism.<sup>[1172]</sup>

In 1856, John Pierpont Morgan Jr. (1837-1913), future industrialist, left for Germany to study at the University of Göttingen. Simultaneously, Karl Marx was advocating Communism. Author Ralph Epperson suggests that it is quite conceivable that the two met because Marx, financed by the bankers, made regular visits to that area of Germany.<sup>[1173]</sup> *The Hanover Courier* of Berlin reported on July 16, 1903, that J. P. Morgan, “always manifested deep interest in the University of Göttingen,” where he studied as a young man. He commissioned a well-known American author to write a history of the American colony, composed of the numerous students from America, at Göttingen.<sup>[1174]</sup> Lionel Nathan de Rothschild (1806-1879), the oldest son of Nathan and grandson of Mayer Rothschild, also studied at the University of Göttingen.

Morgan, like Mayer Amschel Rothschild, recognized that certain political ideologies when employed by the rich would enable a person to amass an even greater fortune. The state, he thought, must control the

nation's money supply through a centralized banking system such as the American System, the program that the Whigs had promoted, now embraced by the newly organized Republican Party. Rothschild allegedly made a similar observation. He said, if he, as a banker, issued and controlled a nation's money rather than Congress, whose job it was, through the Treasury, then he cared not who wrote the laws. Fredric Morton reported these sentiments in *The Rothschilds, a Family Portrait*, in 1962.<sup>[1175]</sup>

Lincoln had always been a confirmed Whig. He never discarded this socialistic philosophy. During his administration, he oversaw the development of the transcontinental railroad in which private, well-connected companies received massive land grants and loans from the federal government. He argued that a modern economy whether in peace or war required adequate infrastructure and that it was up to the government to assist.<sup>[1176]</sup> Henry C. Carey, an economist who embraced Hamilton's system of big government was Lincoln's chief economic advisor and one of the architects of his Reconstruction Program.

## **The Right of Secession**

In 1798, during America's undeclared naval war with France, the Federalists in the United States Congress passed four bills known collectively as the Alien and Sedition Acts. John Adams signed the all of the bills, the Naturalization Act, the Alien Friends Act, the Alien Enemies Act, and the Sedition Act into law. In opposition, Vice President Thomas Jefferson secretly wrote the Kentucky Resolutions countering the federal government's unconstitutional legislation in defense of states' rights. The Kentucky state legislature passed the first resolution on November 16, 1798 and the second on December 3, 1799. James Madison wrote the Virginia Resolution regarding the same issue. The Virginia state legislature passed it on December 24, 1798.

The second Kentucky Resolution states, "That the several States composing, the United States of America are not united on the principle of unlimited submission to their general government." The states "delegated to that government certain definite powers, reserving, each State to itself, the residuary mass of right to their own self-government; and that whensoever the general government assumes undelegated powers, its acts are unauthoritative, void and of no force." The states, presumably participants in the Federal compact, have obligatory rights to evaluate potential and actual constitutional violations through the process of nullification. States, then and now, supposedly have the right to take action against Federal abuses of power through the nullification procedure wherein states can refuse to enforce laws considered unconstitutional.<sup>[1177]</sup>

On March 4, 1801, Thomas Jefferson, in his inaugural address, had favored "support of the state governments in all of their rights, as the most competent administrations for our domestic concerns and the surest bulwarks against anti-republican tendencies."<sup>[1178]</sup>

Alexander Hamilton, the architect of the Federalist Party, a party of bankers and businessmen, was in the process of increasing the army and suggested sending the military into Virginia to put down their resistance to federal legislation. The New England states, Federalist strongholds, rejected the resolutions. The state governments of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island, acting in behalf of the merchants and shippers, objected to President Thomas Jefferson's (1801-1809) anti-foreign trade policy defined in the Embargo Act of 1807 and President James Madison's (1809-1817) Non-Intercourse Act of 1809, allegedly based on their questionable constitutionality but probably based more on commercialism. In 1812, Federalist officials in Massachusetts and Connecticut resisted sending their militias to defend the coast during the War of 1812.

Officials in Connecticut and Massachusetts opposed the embargo the federal government passed in 1813. A Harvard-educated Federalist and Chief Justice of the Massachusetts Supreme Judicial Court (SJC),

established by the British Crown (1692), Samuel Sewall issued the following statement on February 22, 1814,

“A power to regulate commerce is abused, when employed to destroy it; and a manifest and voluntary abuse of power sanctions the right of resistance, as much as a direct and palpable usurpation. The sovereignty reserved to the states, was reserved to protect the citizens from acts of violence by the United States, as well as for purposes of domestic regulation. We spurn the idea that the free, sovereign and independent State of Massachusetts is reduced to a mere municipal corporation, without power to protect its people, and to defend them from oppression, from whatever quarter it comes. Whenever the national compact is violated, and the citizens of this State are oppressed by cruel and unauthorized laws, this Legislature is bound to interpose its power, and wrest from the oppressor its victim.”<sup>[1179]</sup> However, noting the first sentence in the court’s statement, one must question the loyalties of the commercial interests in the North who apparently were not willing to use their militias to fight the British invaders and who still demanded the opportunity to do business with a country that was killing their fellow citizens.

On October 10, 1814, during the War of 1812 (1812-1815), the Massachusetts state legislature called for the Hartford Convention, convened from December 15, 1814 to January 4, 1815 with delegates, most of whom were Federalists, from Rhode Island, New Hampshire and Vermont. They discussed their opposition to the war and possible secession from the United States. One of the objectives of the Hartford Convention was to amend the Constitution to improve and insure states’ rights. Theodore Dwight (1764-1846) a lawyer, journalist, a member of Congress (1806-1807), and a leader of the Federalist Party, was the secretary of the Hartford Convention. He was the editor of the *Hartford Mirror* and the *Albany Daily Advertiser*. He moved to New York City and founded the *New York City Daily Advertiser* in 1817. Aaron Burr, his cousin, allied with the Massachusetts Tories and thought that the U.S. should have remained a British colony. Burr’s cousin and law partner, Theodore Dwight devised some political moves to destroy the unity of the U.S. Dwight’s brother, Timothy Dwight, was the president of Yale. Jonathan Edwards was the grandfather of the Dwight brothers and Aaron Burr.

Jonathan Edwards, a preacher and philosophical theologian, advocated a puritanical Reformed theology and embraced the principles of The Enlightenment. He played a major role in shaping the First Great Awakening and revivalism (1733–1735). He delivered the sermon *Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God* during another revivalist wave in 1741. He died from a smallpox vaccination shortly after he accepted the position as president of the College of New Jersey (later named Princeton University).

Senator John Randolph (1825-1827) later reminded Congress, “the federal government was created by the states and was restricted in its power. He argued that the federal government must never become “the sole judge of its own usurpations.”<sup>[1180]</sup>

On January 13, 1848, just before the simultaneous outbreak of socialist revolutions in several countries in Europe, Lincoln said, “Any people anywhere, being inclined and having the power, have the right to rise up and shake off the existing government, and form a new one that suits them better. This is a most valuable, a most sacred right, a right which, we hope and believe, is to liberate the world. Nor is this right confined to cases in which the whole people of an existing government may choose to exercise it. Any portion of such people that can may revolutionize, and make their own of so much of the territory as they inhabit. More than this, a majority of any portion of such people may revolutionize, putting down a minority, intermingled with, or near about them, who may oppose their movements. Such minority was precisely the case of the Tories of our own Revolution. It is a quality of revolutions not to go by old lines, or old laws; but to break up both, and make new ones.”<sup>[1181]</sup>

Lincoln either drastically changed his views regarding secession or he was endorsing something else – perhaps the revolutionary seizure and replacement of an “existing government” here or “anywhere.” A

critical reading of his words, his presidential actions and the centralized government that followed his war provides circumstantial evidence of a selective application of secession principles. He mentioned the word revolution three times, which certainly denotes warfare. Secession could have occurred peacefully but Lincoln resisted all diplomatic debate, which might have ended or initiated secession efforts. Secession is withdrawal whereas revolutions, like those in Europe and ours against Britain, involved violence and a takeover of an “existing government.” He claimed to uphold the founder’s writings, including the Declaration of Independence, yet he failed to defend them and utterly ignored them when it came to the South.

Lincoln, an experienced lawyer, would have known that secession was a viable option. However, once he allowed a legal discussion and an open debate on the subject, he would lose. The Declaration of Independence, with its statements about a government deriving its just powers from the consent of the governed, was squarely against him. The South claimed a right to secession through the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution, the contract of the sovereign states with the federal government.<sup>[1182]</sup> A party of individuals founded the Union on the principles of popular sovereignty and rule by the consent of the governed, not on the principle of indivisibility.

Immediately after Lincoln’s election as president, the following statements appeared in the *New York Tribune*, “The union of these States is in its nature irrevocable, and only the earthquake of revolution can shiver it. Still we say, in all earnestness and good faith, whenever a whole section of this Republic, whether a half, a third, or only a fourth, shall truly desire and demand a separation from the residue, we shall earnestly favor such separation...If the Union be really oppressive or unjust to the South nay, if the South really believes it so we insist that a decent self-respect should impel the North to say, ‘we think you (are) utterly mistaken, but you have a right to judge for yourselves; so go if you will.’”<sup>[1183]</sup>

On December 3, 1860, before Lincoln’s inauguration, President James Buchanan said in his Fourth Annual Message to Congress, “The question fairly stated is, has the Constitution delegated to Congress the power to coerce a State into submission which is attempting to withdraw or has actually withdrawn from the Confederacy? If answered in the affirmative, it must be on the principle that the power has been conferred upon Congress to declare and to make war against a State. After much serious reflection I have arrived at the conclusion that no such power has been delegated to Congress or to any other department of the Federal Government.”<sup>[1184]</sup>

Buchanan further stated, “The fact is that our Union rests upon public opinion, and can never be cemented by the blood of its citizens shed in civil war. If it cannot live in the affections of the people, it must one day perish. Congress possesses many means of preserving it by conciliation, but the sword was not placed in their hand to preserve it by force.”<sup>[1185]</sup>

The framers voted to deny Congress the power to direct the military power of the Union against the citizens of any state to coerce obedience. The framers also voted to prohibit Congress from sending the Federal army or navy into the territory of any state, except to repel a foreign invasion as requested by the governor or the state legislature to manage an incident of domestic violence. The Federal Government does not have the constitutional right to obstruct any state from seceding from the Union. John Remington Graham, author and attorney, claims that the founding fathers deliberately omitted this power from the Constitution in order to support the state’s right of secession.<sup>[1186]</sup>

A Peace Convention began on February 4, 1861, directed by John Tyler. One hundred and thirty-one delegates attended it from both sides with the intentions of resolving the precarious situation. The convention met for three weeks. Attendees included John J. Crittenden and Stephen Douglas from Kentucky, and Robert A. Toombs from Georgia, Thomas Ewing, from Kansas and Salmon P. Chase from Ohio. Seven states had already committed to secession. John J. Crittenden proposed the Compromise of

December 18, 1860, which Lincoln rejected. It called for negotiations before committing to a bloody war. Officials adopted the Crittenden-Johnson Resolution on July 25, 1861, which clarified that the war was to reunite the states and not to abolish slavery. Further, the Union was to take no action against the institution of slavery.

Lincoln refused to negotiate with Confederate agents, as it would legitimize their claims of sovereignty. The delegation remained in Washington for thirty days and finally returned to Richmond. Lincoln, because he rejected the opportunity to settle the differences between the two diverse parts of the country apparently preferred a show of military force against the southern states in order to enforce the Union's authority in a section of the country where the people believed in state sovereignty.

John Slidell and Judah P. Benjamin, Louisiana's two senators, withdrew from the U.S. Senate at the Peace Convention. Benjamin, a British subject, was born in St Thomas in the West Indies. He had moved, with his parents, to Charleston, South Carolina in 1818. He went north to attend Yale (1825-1828). In 1827, the Charleston Hebrew Orphan Aid Society, a forerunner to B'nai B'rith, inducted Benjamin into their society. In 1832, he moved to New Orleans where he married Natalie St. Martin. Benjamin and Thomas Slidell, John's brother, were partners, along with Charles Magill Conrad in a New Orleans law firm.<sup>[1187]</sup>

Before July 1861, Massachusetts native, John Lothrop Motley, who attended Göttingen, wrote two provocative letters to *The Times* defending the Federal position for a war. An interested party reprinted these in London, as a propaganda pamphlet, entitled *Causes of the Civil War in America*, which favorably impressed Lincoln. Lincoln rewarded Motley with the position of U.S. minister to the Austrian Empire in 1861, a position he held until his resignation in 1867. He was the U.S. Ambassador to the United Kingdom from 1868 to 1870.

Motley wrote, "The Constitution was not drawn up by the States, it was not promulgated in the name of the States, it was not ratified by the States."<sup>[1188]</sup> He argued, "Secession is civil war." Additionally, he wrote, "It is probable that a long course of years will be run, and many inconveniences and grievances endured, before any one of the Free States secede from the reconstructed Union."<sup>[1189]</sup> With the threat of death and property seizure hanging over their heads, people will think twice before even considering secession.

Motley further wrote, "The States never acceded to it, and possess no power to secede from it. It was 'ordained and established' over the States by a power superior to the States— by the people of the whole land in their aggregate capacity, acting through conventions of delegates expressly chosen for the purpose within each State, independently of the State Governments, after the project had been framed."<sup>[1190]</sup>

Lincoln concurred with Motley's deception, "The Union is older than the states and, in fact created them as states. The Union, and not themselves separately, procured their independence and their liberty. The Union threw off their old dependence for them and made them states, such as they are."<sup>[1191]</sup> Motley further wrote, "As for the civil war, nothing could have averted it. It is the result of the forty years' aggression of the slavery power. Lincoln's election was a vote by a majority of every Free State that slavery should go no further, and then the South dissolved the union. Suppose we had acknowledged the confederacy, there would have been war all the same."<sup>[1192]</sup>

Lincoln's "government of the people," the right of self-determination, was merely euphemistic rhetoric. Though he talked about it, he obviously did not believe the principle. He went to war to preserve profit-producing territory. Secession wars, throughout history, have always been about land and resources. Moral issues are contributory but are not legitimate motivating factors. With the passage of time and the application of the victor's pen to paper, certain historians subject Americans to a sanitized version of history. The Civil War, as people commonly call it, is the most sanitized of all wars. The South, rather

than suffer total destruction, could have succeeded as an independent nation if that were the legitimate objective on both sides.<sup>[1193]</sup>

Lincoln maintained that people who even talked about secession were traitors.<sup>[1194]</sup> He claimed that secession was illegal and that the Confederate states, under the control of insurrectionists, were still part of the Union. He further argued that the government had an obligation to suppress the insurrection and restore the control of the southern states to the Union. The real reasons for the war would be evident within months after the war started. He imposed laws and policies that forever altered the country and set terrible precedents.

The Union's victory destroyed the right of secession in America. British historian and political philosopher Lord Acton understood the deeper meaning of Southern defeat. In a letter to former Confederate General Robert E. Lee, on November 4, 1866, he wrote, "I saw in States' Rights the only available check upon the absolutism of the sovereign will, and secession filled me with hope, not as the destruction but as the redemption of Democracy. I deemed you were fighting the battles of our liberty, our progress, and our civilization and I mourn for that which was lost at Richmond more deeply than I rejoice over that which was saved at Waterloo."

## **South Carolina Secession, the Powder Keg**

Carolinian slaveholders played a crucial role in the rise of southern separatism and proslavery thought. Carolinian planter politicians articulated the rationale for southern independence. Secession was a departure from politics as usual and the people of South Carolina exhibited an exceptional commitment to the politics of secession.<sup>[1195]</sup> Southern politicians, planters and slaveholders led the secession movement. Small slaveholding farmers and the yeomen living in the plantation belt followed the elite planters in South Carolina. Yeomen did not instigate the secession or formulate the political ideology behind it.<sup>[1196]</sup> Thomas Cooper, a Jacobin from Manchester, England, influenced those elite planters decades before they actually implemented secession.

Cooper supported the French Revolution (1789-1799) and pledged solidarity with Robespierre, a Freemason.<sup>[1197]</sup> The revolution had its foundation within the Bavarian Illuminati, which "combined doctrine" with a bloody revolution. The Jacobins advocated that same pattern thereafter.<sup>[1198]</sup> Robespierre, a disciple of Weishaupt, allegedly belonged to one of the Illuminati lodges founded by Weishaupt and embraced his objective of a widespread social revolution and considered disorder and anarchy as a means to restructure society according to a system known later as Socialism.<sup>[1199]</sup> Jacobin clubs found great popularity in France among the so-called enlightened elite. According to author Douglas Reed, the Jacobins "presided over the Reign of Terror" and "like the Russian revolution 130 years later, those organizing the revolution in France then displayed their hatred of religion, the poor and the defenseless more than they detested the rich."<sup>[1200]</sup> The Jacobin Club had thousands of chapters throughout France with at least 420,000 members. This secret society is notorious among the more astute students of history for implementing the Reign of Terror, characteristic of the Revolution, and the September Massacres (1792).<sup>[1201]</sup>

Robespierre was a member of the Society of the Friends of the Constitution, also known as the secretive Jacobin Club,<sup>[1202]</sup> formed in 1786 with such early members as Honoré Gabriel Riqueti, Comte de Mirabeau, Abbé Sieyès, Antoine Barnave, Jérôme Pétion, the Abbé Grégoire, Charles Lameth (Society of Thirty<sup>[1203]</sup>), and Alexandre Lameth, all allegedly part of the Illuminati.<sup>[1204]</sup> Thomas Cooper was an honorary member of the Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society, founded in 1781 in Manchester.<sup>[1205]</sup> Thomas Walker and Cooper co-founded the Manchester Constitutional Society, perhaps an Illuminati front, modeled after the Jacobins. Cooper, a born agitator, was a brilliant barrister and a research chemist in the Manchester textile industry.<sup>[1206]</sup>

Walker sent Cooper and James Watt to Paris to establish a relationship with other constitutional societies.<sup>[1207]</sup> On April 13, 1792, Cooper and Watt, during their four-month visit, addressed a meeting of the Society of Friends of the Constitution in Paris. The Jacobins sent an appreciation letter to the Manchester Constitutional Society the following day.<sup>[1208]</sup> On April 30, 1792, Edmund Burke addressed the House of Commons and revealed that Walker had sent two traitorous English agents, referring to Cooper and Watt, to France to enter into a federation with the “iniquitous” Club of Jacobins.<sup>[1209]</sup> Authorities tried Walker and other members for treason in April 1794.<sup>[1210]</sup>

Cooper, a British Jacobin, had visited America for a few months in 1793 and in 1794, he returned with his family, settling in Northumberland, Pennsylvania. In 1795, he became a citizen and officials admitted him to the Northumberland Bar. Between 1793 and 1798, according to the French consular estimates, as many as 25,000 Jacobins found refuge in the U.S. Concurrently, Irish Freemasons also flocked to America. Some Americans perceived this massive immigration as dangerous to the nation, which generated the Naturalization Act of 1798. It extended the required period of residence for citizenship. The Alien Act allowed the President the power to expel foreigners.<sup>[1211]</sup> On April 9, 1800, authorities indicted Cooper and vigorously prosecuted him under the Sedition Act of July 14, 1798. Federalist Supreme Court Judge Samuel Chase found Cooper guilty on May 1, 1800. Judge Chase fined him \$400 and imprisoned him for six months. His wife died while he was in a federal prison.<sup>[1212]</sup> <sup>[1213]</sup> Judge Chase, then an Anti-Federalist, was a signatory on the Declaration of Independence. He was the main architect of Maryland’s 1776 constitution. He lost his seat, along with his reputation, in the Continental Congress because he attempted to monopolize the flour market in 1778 during the time that Congress authorized the purchasing of flour for the troops.<sup>[1214]</sup>

A decade later, on August 7, 1811, Cooper became head of the chemistry department at Dickinson College in Carlisle, Pennsylvania. He also taught at the University of Pennsylvania (1818-1819). By 1820, Dr. Cooper moved to South Carolina where he taught at the South Carolina College, now the University of South Carolina. In 1821, the board of trustees elected him president of the college. He remained president until 1834 when others began opposing his liberal religious views, actually for being an atheist. Though he had earlier opposed slavery, he soon began to defend rather than apologize for it, saying that it was beneficial to both master and slave.<sup>[1215]</sup> This atheist justified slavery because it “is encouraged throughout the whole of the Scriptures from beginning to end.”<sup>[1216]</sup> Cooper influenced many future South Carolina politicians, including two governors – William Henry Gist and Francis W. Pickens,<sup>[1217]</sup> both members of the secretive Clariosophic Literary Society, founded on February 21, 1806. John C. Calhoun was also a member. Other significant names in the club included Huger, Porcher, Miles, Bonham, Richardson, Lowndes, Boyce, Simkins, and Carroll.<sup>[1218]</sup> Often literary societies were allegedly Illuminati front groups. Pickens was a staunch defender of slavery and a radicalized activist for state’s rights and asserted that whatever action, including war, was preferable to a “government of unlimited powers.”<sup>[1219]</sup> Pickens and other students studied states’ rights ideology under Cooper and embraced his dogma.<sup>[1220]</sup> Pickens would later address the Clariosophic Society on February 2, 1827 during which he said, “The great talents of the nation are drawn into politics. There is nothing that has so strong a charm for ambition as power in government.”<sup>[1221]</sup>

The South Carolina College was a veritable spawning ground of the state’s planter politicians. Cooper’s students were well versed in the tenets of pro-slavery, states’ rights, and free trade. Cooper, an avowed atheist, even used the scriptures to justify slavery.<sup>[1222]</sup> He was quick to point out that Jefferson was a slaveholder. He also argued that the founders did not intend to apply the principles of the Declaration to the “black race,” a premise evidenced by the reality of their circumstances.<sup>[1223]</sup>

Cooper, now a planter, and Robert J. Turnbull, linked the tariff to slavery and were early proponents of

southern nationalism. Cooper claimed, with some justification, that the tariffs were a conspiracy to destroy the South and led the opposition against Congress's revenue policy.<sup>[\[1224\]](#)</sup>

Cooper denounced the prohibitive taxes of the Tariff Act of 1824, engineered through Congress by Henry Clay. It imposed taxes upon the South which made the agrarian residents, producers of raw materials, into “colonists and tributaries” for the manufacturing interests. Clay promoted the American System, a yoke upon the South, comprised of high protective tariffs, a national bank and government-funded roads and canals for the North, all financed by the subservient South with no resultant benefits. Cooper argued that according to the Constitution, Congress has a right to regulate commerce but that did not justify the “gross inequities of the protective system,” designed to price-protect certain industries and foster retaliation from foreign nations. Cooper wished the northern manufacturers well but reiterated that they did not warrant any special advantages.<sup>[1225]</sup>

Cooper justifiably maintained that the North was seizing wealth and power. He gave a premature disunion speech wherein he stated that the South, in an unequal alliance, had always been the loser.<sup>[1226]</sup> At the anti-Woolens tariff meeting in Columbia, South Carolina in July 1827, Cooper asked, “Is it worth our while to continue this Union of States, where the North demands to be our masters and we are required to be their tributaries?”<sup>[1227]</sup> Cooper characterized the tariff issue as a struggle between the elite planters of the South and the manufacturers of the North. He cautioned that, not only were the southerners shifting their wealth to the North but also their political power. He said, “We shall ‘ere long be compelled to calculate the value of our union; and to enquire what use to us is this most unequal alliance? By which the south has always been the loser, the north always the gainer?”<sup>[1228]</sup> Author William Freehling referred to Thomas Cooper as the Professor of Revolution as he had supported the organizers of the French Revolution. As an influential college professor and president, Cooper, the experienced anarchist, inculcated the senior class in revolutionary philosophy and trained them to become “young rebels.” This European émigré declared that a revolution was brewing down South that “might rival the French.”<sup>[1229]</sup>

On October 5, 1860, South Carolina Governor William H. Gist, a Cooper disciple, sent confidential letters to all of the cotton state governors except Texas stating that his state would likely secede if Lincoln won the election. He asked for their support. His letters included a definitive comparison of the resources of the north and the south by category: the number of acres, livestock, slaves, cotton, food crops, population, males of military age, and manufacturers. The statistical realities were definite factors when considering secession and southern independence.<sup>[1230]</sup>

In November 1860, after Lincoln’s election, a crowd of citizens gathered in Crawfordville, Georgia to dissent against a potential war. Lincoln’s election did not justify disunion or secession. Mass meetings in other southern areas reflected the same sentiments. Regardless, secessionists continued to promote their cause against all opposition. The “plain folk” objected. However, those with influence and a voice, like Georgia Senator Toombs who said “but whoever waited for the common people when a great move was to be made – we must make the move and force them to follow.” The majority of the south was unsupportive but the secessionists had the power, money and influence and often hired thuggish, intimidating provocateurs to disrupt meetings assembled by the opposition.<sup>[1231]</sup>

Before January 1861, the *New York Tribune* declared, “The South Carolina secessionists openly proclaim their intention of treading the stars and stripes under foot. The only security the President can have that Fort Moultrie will not be violently seized upon is the presence of a force sufficient to protect it.”<sup>[1232]</sup> The South had not exhibited a shred of violence. South Carolina was not representative of the south. Its peculiarly anti-democratic political structure, statewide plantation belt, and lack of a two party political system set it apart from other southern states. These features placed the state’s slaveholding aristocracy at the top of southern separatism – leading proponents of a slave-based identity and preeminent propagandists for secession. Carolinian planter politicians were not in the political mainstream, but as separatist agitators, they defined the issues of sectional crisis.<sup>[1233]</sup>

A small number of elite planters owned most of the slaves. In subsequent years, the concentrated ownership of slaves encouraged northern Republican leaders to underestimate the popularity of secession and Southern independence. This was also true during and especially after the war when the North verbally battered the South with antislavery sentiments as the Union's great humanitarian rationale. The North used hypocritical rhetoric to counter opposition to Lincoln's 10% plan for Reconstruction and his plans for land and resource confiscation and other forms of federal interference in the South.<sup>[1234]</sup>

The Confederate Constitutional Convention opened in February 1861. People called Robert Barnwell Rhett of South Carolina the "Father of Secession" for initiating his state's secession. Southern manufacturers resisted the states' rights proponents as the South did a big business with the North. In February 1861, individuals drafted the Southern Confederate constitution in Montgomery and called for "no encouragement to domestic industry."<sup>[1235]</sup> The Confederate leadership was composed of cotton planters who were so blinded by their resentment of Northern commercialism that they failed to recognize their inabilities to adequately feed and clothe Confederate troops. Therefore, on February 26, 1861, the Confederacy established the position of Quartermaster General, charged with disbursing monies designated to equip men for warfare. Abraham Charles Myers, the first Quartermaster General devised strict regulations and policies for Southern manufacturers.<sup>[1236]</sup>

Myers, with his increasing power and authority, held a "guardianship" over all Southern manufacturing. Such government power over the private sector bordered on "military socialism" with Myers, approved by Congress, as the dominant factor in assuming "control of all workers of military age." He exempted workers, imposed price and profit controls on manufacturers and impressed commodities and livestock. In the fall of 1862, with the repeal of the Commutation System, he took control of almost all military supplies in the confederacy.<sup>[1237]</sup> The Commutation System had mandated that soldiers procure their own uniforms, either locally or nationally, and the Confederate Government would reimburse the cost.

Access to northern markets ended with secession as the Union quickly imposed an economic blockade. All banks, except those in Louisiana, suspended specie payments.<sup>[1238]</sup> By spring 1862, the Confederate government requested New Orleans banks to use Confederate currency and send their specie out of the city.<sup>[1239]</sup> Senator Toombs, a Freemason, a lawyer and a slaveholding planter, was in the Georgia House of Representatives (1838, 1840-1841, 1843-1844), and in the U.S. House of Representatives (1844-1853). Up until Lincoln's election, Toombs, a former Whig, was a Unionist totally opposed to secession. Two days after South Carolina seceded; he sent a telegram to officials in Georgia, "secession by the 4th of March next should be thundered forth from the ballot-box by the united voice of Georgia."

Seven states declared their secession before Lincoln took office on March 4, 1861, South Carolina (December 20, 1860), Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas. Four more states seceded after the events at Fort Sumter, on April 12, 1861, and Lincoln's subsequent call for troops on April 15 – Virginia, Arkansas, Tennessee and North Carolina. In order to assist him in his reelection bid in 1864, Lincoln allowed the northwestern portion of Virginia to secede from Virginia, joining the Union as the new state of West Virginia on June 20, 1863.

## Harriet's Hateful Propaganda



Authors Anthony Pratkanis and Elliott Aronson, in *The Age of Propaganda* wrote, “Propaganda involves the dexterous use of images, slogans and symbols that play on our prejudices and emotions; it is the communication of a point of view with the ultimate goal of having the recipient of the appeal come to ‘voluntarily’ accept this position as if it were his or her own.”<sup>[1240]</sup> Harriet Beecher Stowe, the author of *Uncle Tom’s Cabin*, fomented hatred between the North and South with her highly volatile, prejudicial and unsubstantiated novel. Yes, it was a novel, not a documentary examination of the South and the institution of slavery. What was the deep-seated motivation behind her passion-filled, colloquialized literary efforts? Revealingly, large banking houses in the U.S. and Europe paid for Harriet Beecher Stowe’s vicious pen.<sup>[1241]</sup>

Novels, like many television shows or Hollywood movies, are the most benign form of propaganda yet they have functioned very effectively as propaganda because people subconsciously accept fiction, portrayed in a novel or movie, as if their writers and producers had based their creation on absolute fact. While there might be a modicum of truth or accuracy in some novels, shows or movies, we must remember that there is no such thing as valueless entertainment; everything, whether non-fiction and especially fiction has an objective. Unfortunately, people, when enjoying something purportedly entertaining, have their guard down and do not expect people to manipulate their values and dispense false information. Writers compose books, articles, essays, novels with a particular agenda. It is up to the reader to dispassionately accept or reject certain portions or an entire work or to be a critical student and discern the truth through his/her own investigation and conclusions.

So-called documentaries or fact-based movies attest to this human peculiarity in contemporary society. Novels that portray fiction based on fact include Edward Bellamy’s *Looking Backward, 2000-1887* and Harriet Beecher Stowe’s *Uncle Tom’s Cabin*. Contemporary novels that have accelerated hatred include Dr. Miklos Nyiszli’s *Auschwitz, a Doctor’s Eyewitness Account* that, like *Uncle Tom’s Cabin*, editors initially serialized in a popular newspaper. To gain popular support, effective propaganda transforms a controversy into a “cause” and then recruits role-model-style backers.<sup>[1242]</sup>

Harriet Beecher Stowe’s father, Lyman Beecher, was a theological innovator who attended Yale Divinity School as a Calvinist Timothy Dwight protégé. In 1832, Reverend Beecher moved his family from Boston to Cincinnati where he became the first president of Lane Theological Seminary, established in the Walnut Hills section of Cincinnati in 1829 to teach Presbyterian ministers. By 1833, Arthur and Lewis Tappan, wealthy New York merchants, were financially backing Lane Theological Seminary. Their trustees were “conservative” Cincinnati merchants with financial interests in the south. Blacks wishing to settle in Bucktown, a black Cincinnati community were required to pay a \$500 bond within thirty days to guarantee their good behavior. When several black new arrivals asked for an extension of this relatively huge fee, the whites rampaged through Bucktown, the site of the riots in 1829. Outraged citizens killed one black individual and injured dozens of others. Almost half the community left for Canada.

In 1834, when Reverend Beecher, Calvin E. Stowe and other faculty members were absent the students debated the controversial race issue, a subject that had been banned by the Executive Committee. Seminary administrators fired Professor John Morgan because he was sympathetic to the students. Thirty-nine dissenting students left Lane Theological to attend Oberlin College, about 200 miles away. Oberlin agreed to hire John Morgan to teach the History of the Christian Church, (1835-1837), as requested by the Lane students. The Lane administrators hired Charles Grandison Finney, a Freemason, to teach theology at Lane Theological.<sup>[1243]</sup>

Oberlin residents protested this incursion of students who felt that blacks should have educational equality. While many applauded and supported abolition, they were not interested in actually socializing, attending school or in having blacks live in their community. They also did not believe or advocate

political or social equality for the blacks. There was one black resident in Lorain County in 1834 and no black ever applied for admission to Oberlin. It was one thing to grant blacks certain legal protections and to view slavery as a sin. However, local white residents saw blacks as unequal to whites in intelligence, physical stamina and ambition.<sup>[1244]</sup>

Reverend Beecher's primary ambition was to persuade other Ohio residents to his point of view regarding morality and a particular style of education. He said, "The moral destiny of our nation, and all its institutions and hopes, and the world's hopes, turns on the character of the West...and the competition now is for that of preoccupancy in the education of the rising generation, in which Catholics and infidels have got the start of us."<sup>[1245]</sup> In 1835, Beecher wrote *A Plea for the West*, warning Protestants of a Catholic conspiracy to dominate the Mississippi Valley.<sup>[1246]</sup>

In 1836, Reverend Beecher's daughter, Harriet married widower Calvin E. Stowe, a graduate of Andover Theological Seminary and a hypochondriac biblical scholar who taught at Lane Theological Seminary (1830-1840). He advocated a public school system and urged Ohio to adopt a state-backed compulsory educational system like Prussia's, as described in John Griscom's book *A Year in Europe* (1819) in which Griscom praised the Prussian school system and the ideas of Pestalozzi, the Illuminist.<sup>[1247]</sup> Pestalozzi's "illuminati-inspired" teaching methods, perpetuated by his many students, greatly affected "the Western educational establishment."<sup>[1248]</sup>

Ohio Governor Robert Lucas, a Freemason<sup>[1249]</sup>, commissioned Stowe to travel to Europe to examine and evaluate the Prussian school system. He left in June 1836, was gone for eight months, and attended classes in Württemberg and Prussia.<sup>[1250]</sup> He would visit Germany again in 1853.<sup>[1251]</sup> While in Germany, he visited with scholars and theologians, researched the Prussian school system, and then compiled his conclusions in the *Report on Elementary Instruction in Europe*, which the state government sent to every school district in Ohio. Stowe also purchased eight boxes of books, 5,000 volumes, for the Lane Seminary library. Many of the books were about German theology. He was absolutely enthralled with Germany and German customs<sup>[1252]</sup> and greatly influenced by Germany's religious liberalism, a product of the enlightenment. His father-in-law, Reverend Beecher, was similarly impressed with the Prussian school model. Protestant theologians intended to use the system to maintain the Protestant character of American culture against what they viewed as the influence of the onslaught of Catholic immigration.<sup>[1253]</sup> Stowe, in his report, urged Ohioans to dismiss sectarian disparities and unite against the Catholics.<sup>[1254]</sup>

During the Stowe family's eighteen years in Cincinnati, they associated with many of the local anti-slavery leaders including Salmon P. Chase who supported the establishment of a national non-partisan anti-slavery group. Chase, a Dartmouth graduate, had moved to Cincinnati from Washington in 1830 after studying law under U.S. Attorney General William Wirt.<sup>[1255]</sup> Reverend Beecher officiated at the marriage of Catherine Jane Garniss and Salmon P. Chase on March 4, 1834.<sup>[1256]</sup> Unfortunately, Catherine died a year later in childbirth.<sup>[1257]</sup>

Apparently, to augment the family's meager income, Harriet Beecher Stowe began writing, focusing on inculcating moralistic Christian values.<sup>[1258]</sup> She based her first attempt at writing on a fictionalized character named Sam, *Immediate Emancipation: a Sketch*, which appeared in the *New York Evangelist* on January 2, 1845. To avoid antagonizing Southerners by obvious personal attacks, Stowe used dramatically vivid, emotionally charged fiction to convince her audience that what she was writing was factual.<sup>[1259]</sup> She consistently employed skillfully crafted literary devices to evoke outrage and absolute empathy in her readers for the fictitious characters she created. She allegedly based her next anti-slavery effort, *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, on the memoirs of Reverend Josiah Henson, a Freemason.

Chase persuaded Dr. Gamaliel Bailey, a lecturer of physiology at Lane Theological Seminary, to become the editor of a national anti-slavery Washington-based newspaper, *The National Era*, which began

publication in January 1847. Bailey used the newspaper to advocate Chase's concept of a new anti-slavery society coalition.<sup>[1260]</sup> The newspaper helped radicalize the Northern abolition movement.

Reverend Stowe resigned his position at Lane Theological Seminary and moved his family to Brunswick, Maine where he had accepted the assignment of teaching religion at Bowdoin College (1850-1852) where Harriet began writing in Bowdoin's Appleton Hall. In 1852, Reverend Stowe then accepted a position at Andover Theological Seminary (1852-1864), co-founded by Timothy Dwight in 1807. Dr. Bailey, after the Stowe's arrival in Maine, sent a note and \$100 to Harriet Stowe asking her to write a serialized anti-slavery story for *The National Era*, the newspaper that was financed by Lewis Tappan, a Chase crony.<sup>[1261]</sup> The first part in the series appeared on June 5, 1851 and the last part appeared on April 1, 1852. He thought the series would consist of three or four parts but it ended with forty-one installments.<sup>[1262]</sup> When Stowe completed the series, Bailey paid her an additional \$100 for a total of \$400, a little over three times the yearly expense of renting the house in Brunswick (\$125).<sup>[1263]</sup>

Apparently, given the publication date, another publishing opportunity, in addition to *The National Era*, was already in process. J. P. Jewett Company (John) of Boston published Stowe's serial, *Uncle Tom's Cabin* on March 20, 1852. Southerners hated the mass-marketed novel because it was sensationalized fiction, and a flawed portrayal of Southern slavery designed to provoke a predictable response. This highly emotional, atrocity story also created numerous negative stereotypes about black people.<sup>[1264]</sup> Topsy, Eliza, Uncle Tom, and the despicable and sadistic slave driver Simon Legree, and the slave executioners Sambo and Quimbo deceptively characterized all Southerners. Stowe became a national and international celebrity who later helped found the prestigious *Atlantic Monthly* magazine.<sup>[1265]</sup>

Salmon P. Chase financially assisted Bailey when his health and finances failed. He also persuaded other antislavery allies to make "loans" to Bailey to cover his \$5,000 indebtedness. He continued these efforts, in the widow's behalf, after Bailey's death in mid-1859 after the *National Era* discontinued publication.<sup>[1266]</sup> As late as June 8, 1863, he instructed Jay Cooke to add \$1,000 to the \$4,500 he had already given to Mrs. M. L. Bailey, the widow of Dr. Bailey.<sup>[1267]</sup>

Author John Remington Graham wrote, "Mrs. Stowe was a blatant propagandist. If she was sincere, she was misguided. If she was motivated by altruism, she found it lucrative, for she earned fabulous royalties." Her unscholarly book revealed her "intestinal hatred" for Southerners. She depicted rare exceptions of slave abuse as "the normal, approved and routine practice of the South," a place she had never even visited. Her book convinced Northerners "that slavery was a system of whipping, selling out families, cruel murder, heinous brutality, impotent virtue, triumphant evil, in short an unending hell which was suffered by poor blacks at the hands of sadistic whites." The outraged Northerners forgot all about *Uncle Tom* but were inflamed by "damaging falsehoods."<sup>[1268]</sup> In her melodramatic climax, she had the sadistic Simon Legree murder the kindly Uncle Tom who pleads, Mas'r, if you was sick, or in trouble, or dying, and I could save ye, I'd give ye my heart's blood...O, Mas'r, don't bring this great sin on your soul.<sup>[1269]</sup>

Reader response to Stowe's book was robust from the beginning. Booksellers sold about 305,000 copies by the first anniversary of the book's publication. She wanted her readers to feel outrage and injustice, which many of those soldiers who enlisted in the Union Army exhibited during the bloodiest war in U.S. history. Her novel was possibly the most decisive tear-jerking, emotion-provoking propaganda novel ever written.<sup>[1270]</sup> Evidently, Calvin Stowe made substantial contributions to his wife's novel. He was quite familiar with Hegelian dialecticism, perhaps because of his eight-month trip to Prussia in 1836. Author W. B. Allen claims that a thorough reading of Calvin Stowe's work indicates his familiarity with Hegel.<sup>[1271]</sup>

Upon meeting Harriet Stowe at the White House, Lincoln said, "Why, Mrs. Stowe, right glad to see you!"

Then with a humorous twinkle in his eye, he said, “So you’re the little woman who wrote the book that made this great war!”<sup>[1272]</sup> Harriet Stowe wrote in her memoirs, “Probably no ruler ever made a more profoundly and peculiarly Christian impression on the mind of the world than Lincoln. In his religious faith two leading ideas were prominent from first to last – man’s helplessness, both as to strength and wisdom, and God’s helpfulness in both.”<sup>[1273]</sup>

Under the direction of this faux “Christian” ruler, at least 622,000 people died needlessly and over a million people suffered serious wounds. The public debt in 1860 was \$75,985,299, about the same as the debt incurred by the Revolutionary War. By the end of the war, the public debt was about \$4,000,000,000 with interest of about \$292,000,000 or 7.3%.<sup>[1274]</sup>

## **The Forty-Eighters, Marxists in America**

On October 13, 1843, in Sinsheimer’s Café in New York City, three years before the Mexican-American War and almost twenty years before the second revolution in America, the one people call the Civil War, a small group of German immigrants, many of them Freemasons, organized the Independent Order of B’nai B’rith (Sons of the Covenant), one of the oldest operating Jewish organizations in the world. By 1855, they had established twenty lodges in various sections of the country. They stopped using German as the official language at their meetings, as they wanted an Americanized membership and program.<sup>[1275]</sup> Those Freemasons were Henry Jones, Isaac Rosenbourg, William Renau, Reuben Rodacher, Henry Kling, Isaac Dittenhoefer, Jonas Hecht and a few other German-Jewish immigrants. Some of their “noble” objectives were to secure equal treatment of everyone (who was Jewish) and to end criticism and discrimination in America. In October 1913, through the instrumentality of Sigmund Livingston, a Jewish attorney, the B’nai B’rith founded the Anti-Defamation League (ADL), headquartered in New York, an international non-governmental organization (NGO), to thwart criticism and discrimination on an international basis. They founded it just before they created the Federal Reserve and just prior to World War I, again to inhibit criticism of their activities.

About 500,000 Germans immigrated to the U.S. following the unsuccessful socialist revolutions in 1848 and 1849. Unlike the Germans who had immigrated some fifty or more years before, the majority of the Germans who arrived in the U.S. after 1848 were former Marxist revolutionaries and socialists who embraced his revolutionary philosophy and the Jacobean ideas popularized before and during the French Revolution. Some of the new immigrants had actually participated in the revolutions. Two are quite notable, Carl Schurz and Joseph Goldmark, Louis Brandies’ father-in-law. Schurz became a Union Army General, a U.S. Senator from Missouri (1869-1875) and later, the Secretary of the Interior (1877-1881).

Most German immigrants prior to 1848 were mainly composed of farmers, a mixture of Lutherans and various small sects, most of whom were pious Christians. Conversely, the radical Forty-Eighters came to the U.S. for its socialist promises, such as free land as was represented by the Homestead movement. The majority of these new immigrants settled in cities, were rootless, with no particular attraction for a homeland. They were urban, more educated, less willing to work and more apt to look to the welfare state. They were often irreligious and even atheistic and they were intent on converting their fellow German-Americans, those who had previously settled in the U.S. to their socialistic way of thinking.<sup>[1276]</sup>

Many of the Forty-Eighters were intimately associated with Marx and endorsed his leadership. These included Fritz Anneke, Gottfried Theodore Kellner, Hermann Meyer, Friedrich Adolph Sorge, and Joseph Weydemeyer and others. They found their niche in U.S. radicalism. Gottfried Theodore Kellner received his Ph.D. from Göttingen University. Since many were highly educated, they established newspapers like *Der Kommunist* (1852) in Cleveland; *Milwaukee Volksfreund*; the *Die Revolution* in New York; *Turnzeitung* of New York; and the *Neu England Zeitung* of Boston; the *Illinois Staatszeitung*; *Neue Zeit* in St. Louis; *Die Republik der Arbeiter*

in New York; the *Westfälisches Dampfboot*, the *Triersche Zeitung*, *Die Reform*, and the *Philadelphia Demokrat* and the *Staatszeitung* in Chicago, the *New Yorker-Abendzeitung*. Mathilde Anneke started the feminist newspaper the *Deutsche Frauen-Zeitung* and opened a progressive girl's school. Being an incessant social reformer, she joined with Susan B. Anthony and Elizabeth Cady Stanton.<sup>[1277]</sup>

In 1859, Fritz Anneke went to Switzerland and joined Giuseppe Garibaldi, a noted guerrilla fighter and Italian protagonists of the Risorgimento, the Italian unification movement between 1820 and 1870. Giuseppe Mazzini influenced Garibaldi. Mazzini envisioned a united Europe, a “Europe of nations,”<sup>[1278]</sup> possibly like the contemporary European Union, seemingly unrelated to communistic revolutions.

Joseph Weydemeyer, formerly a lieutenant in the Prussian artillery, wrote for the *New York Tribune*. In November 1851, he arrived in New York, along with his wife and two children with a letter of introduction to Charles A. Dana from Marx, a regular contributor to the *New York Tribune*.<sup>[1279]</sup> Marx and Engels' book, *The Civil War in the U.S.* is composed of collected articles and dispatches from the *Tribune*. Weydemeyer also had an introductory letter to Dana from Ferdinand Freiligrath, a member of the Communist League, a close associate of Marx and apparently someone Dana respected. Marx commissioned Weydemeyer to publish the first edition of the *Communist Manifesto* in the U.S. and retain all sales profits.<sup>[1280]</sup>

Weydemeyer functioned as a “literary agent for Marx and Engels,” by placing their articles with the *New York Tribune* and radical German-language papers. In June 1852, he organized the Proletarian League of New York with the blessings of the London Marxists. This group became the nucleus of the Marxist movement in the U.S. He participated in the German labor movement of the 1850s, especially during the New York strikes in 1853. He made a living through free-lance writing and lecturing on English Chartism.<sup>[1281]</sup>

The refugees immediately became involved in the German-American labor movement. Wilhelm Weitling was a member of the League of the Just, one of the Paris-based secret societies. He wrote his first treatise, *Die Menschheit wie sie IST und wie sie sein sollte* (Mankind as it is and as it should be) and attempted to merge the rising labor movement with communism.<sup>[1282]</sup> Weydemeyer, a union organizer, disseminated Marxism and labored to reinforce U.S. trade unionism. He educated his associates on the value of political action. He maintained, “There should be no division between economics and politics.”<sup>[1283]</sup>

Weitling left Hamburg in August 1849, arrived in the U.S. and settled in New York. He revived the League of Emancipation as the Workingmen's League, which may have had as many as 4,000 members at one time. In 1851, he developed the utopian community of Communia, Iowa, which other German Communists had established four years earlier.<sup>[1284]</sup> Radical social reformers like Weitling, Sorge, and Weydemeyer promoted a comprehensive social and military revolution according to their own plan for Utopia or Marxian theology.<sup>[1285]</sup>

Freidrich Kapp, with a law degree from the University of Berlin, arrived in the U.S. in 1850, and became active in the abolitionist movement and the Republican Party and helped garner the German vote for Lincoln. He was a presidential elector for Lincoln in 1860, along with many other Forty-Eighters. During a speech in New York's Union Square in April 1861, he argued that liberty was “indivisible,” a view shared by Marx and that disunion would be a curse to the U.S., just as it had been to Germany.<sup>[1286]</sup>

Marx and Engels were adamantly pro-Union and anti-Southern and their followers echoed their sentiments. Marx' later followers, the Soviets, would do the same. Soviet historian, Dim Biriuk Petrov, commemorated the 150<sup>th</sup> anniversary of Lincoln's birth by writing his biography, *Avraam Linkol'n*, in Moscow in 1959. He said, “Lincoln sincerely sympathized with the workers and sought the fulfillment of their most important demands.” In 1960, R. F. Ivanov denounced the Confederacy in his *The Civil War in*

*the USA*, the official Soviet history. According to Ivanov, the secessionist slaveholders “vigorously suppressed” all opposition because secession was an “anti-peoples movement.”

Hermann Meyer, a German Jew, was a radical pamphleteer who arrived in New York in 1852 and, like Gottlieb Kellner, quickly associated with Weydemeyer. Meyer promoted the Socialist agenda in Milwaukee and St. Louis where he ultimately organized German chapters of the First International.<sup>[1287]</sup> Kellner supervised an adult evening school.<sup>[1288]</sup>

In 1853, Engels wrote to Weydemeyer to describe the revolutionary progress made in Germany. He wrote, “Clear the way for us, such as a single and indivisible republic,” which was the first step in establishing a communistic nation. The dissolution of the U.S. through the secession of the South was anathema to the communist agenda, the reason the Forty-Eighters, who had fought to establish an indivisible Germany, were now willing to fight to preserve the Union – as a foundation for communism.<sup>[1289]</sup>

In a letter, Marx congratulated Lincoln on his presidential reelection. He reiterated the Communist conviction that the war was as essential to the advancement of the working class. The eradication of slavery opened the floodgates to class warfare. The war functioned to destroy the middle class through the burden of a monstrous national debt placed upon them. Prices would rise higher and faster than wages for unskilled and skilled labor. Poverty increased faster than population. The working classes’ suffering would accelerate with future wars. Lincoln’s War freed the slave and gave impetus to a growing class movement. A second war, unsanctioned by a transcendent objective or social necessity would fashion the chains of the free instead of removing those of the slave. The abject misery remaining would give the capitalists the motive and opportunity to sever the working class from its aspirations via the utilitarian sword of a standing army.<sup>[1290]</sup>

## German Socialists and the 1860 Election

Carl Schurz (1829-1906), the son of a Jewish schoolmaster, studied at the Jesuit Gymnasium of Cologne, then entered the University of Bonn where he co-founded, with Professor Gottfried Kinkel, the *Bonner Zeitung*, devoted to revolutionary activities. He progressed as a revolutionary through his association with Professor Kinkel and the Franconia Fraternity (Burschenschaft Franconia), an organization originally composed of students who had taken part in the revolts against local German authorities. Other members included Friedrich von Spielhagen, Johannes Overbeck, Julius Schmidt, Carl Otto Weber, Ludwig Meyer and Adolf Strodtmann. Schurz later associated with Franz Sigel, Alexander Schimmelfennig, Fritz Anneke, Friedrich Beust, Ludwig Blenker and others, many of whom would emigrate and later join the Union Army during the war.

Johann Gottlieb Fichte, the German philosopher, proposed the first meeting of this group whose motto was Ehre, Freiheit, Vaterland (honor, freedom, fatherland). Germans seeking a unified nation joined in secret societies, like the Burschenschaft, present at all higher scholastic institutions in Germany.<sup>[1291]</sup> Individuals founded the original society, the Urburschenschaft on June 12, 1815 at Jena. On September 20, 1819, Austrian Minister of State Prince Klemens Wenzel von Metternich and the Bundesversammlung (German Confederation), through the Carlsbad Decrees, prohibited all such groups because a liberal, radical student, Karl Ludwig Sand, had murdered the writer August von Kotzebue on March 23, 1819 due to the influence of the secret society.

The revolts in numerous European countries in 1848 were not liberation wars as historians and editors have depicted. Radicals ignited these rebellions to dismantle and usurp localized government autonomies and replace them with powerful, centralized omnipotent, indivisible government structures, an indissoluble power that once entrenched in the body politic would metastasize like a cancer. America, Germany, Italy, France, and Hungary were all countries composed of smaller autonomous states.<sup>[1292]</sup>

Individuals established many monopolistic movements promoting “unification” in the Italian and German speaking areas of Europe in the early 1840s. The Carbonari or Young Italy thrived in Italy and the Tugenbund or Burschenschaft emerged in Germany. The initial objectives were, (1) create totalitarian centralized governments (2) destroy the sovereignty of individual confederated states and (3) decrease religious, particularly Christian, influence.

Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels enumerated the initial and foremost goal out of the seventeen objectives – they wanted to restructure Germany as “a single and indivisible republic.”<sup>[1293]</sup> Do not let the word “republic” fool you. Marx’s use of the word actually means a socialistic democracy. The “indivisible republic” was the overriding principle of the Illuminated French Jacobinism – the “nation une et indivisible.” Essentially, when individuals forcefully seize autonomy from local government entities and deliver it to federal tyrants, it will be undeviating and permanent – indivisible, never to be divided among the states and their citizenry.

Marx and Engels, in addition to an “indivisible republic,” demanded universal suffrage; abolition of all feudal privileges; the expropriation of all large, landed estates, banks, means of transportation, natural resources without just compensation; comprehensive financial and educational restructuring; and a people’s armed militia.<sup>[1294]</sup> They recognized that they or others could not achieve Germany’s unification, with the elimination of local power in favor of an indivisible republic with equal citizenship, without a bloody revolution, in Germany, or elsewhere. Those special interests unified Germany in 1871.<sup>[1295]</sup>

Carl Schurz met Marx when he attended a Democratic congress in Cologne in the summer of 1848 with Professor Kinkel.<sup>[1296]</sup> Schurz participated in the Revolution of 1848, in which radicals attempted to depose Frederick William IV of Prussia. The authorities tried and imprisoned him but he escaped through a storm sewer and fled to Zurich. He went to Paris, then London where he married Margarethe Meyer, the sister of another exile on July 10, 1852. The newlyweds left for the U.S. in August 1852. Her substantial financial assets, allowed Carl to avoid the poverty and unemployment experienced by some refugees.<sup>[1297]</sup> Her father was Heinrich Meyer, a prosperous Jewish merchant.<sup>[1298]</sup> They remained in Philadelphia long enough for Schurz to learn English, and join the Freemasons.<sup>[1299]</sup> Within two years of his U.S. arrival, he visited with several senators and President Franklin Pierce, a fellow Freemason. They advised him about political opportunities in the Midwest. Schurz and his wife moved to Watertown, Wisconsin in 1854.<sup>[1300]</sup>

By 1856, other relatives arrived in Watertown, Schurz’s parents and his two sisters.<sup>[1301]</sup> Individuals organized the Republican Party in 1854-1855, ostensibly to prevent the expansion of slavery and as a successor to the Whig Party, which advocated, among other things, a powerful central government. Thousands of refugees who fought for German unification, known as the Forty-Eighters, were immediately attracted to the Republican Party.<sup>[1302]</sup> The Forty-Eighters coordinated their campaign efforts to create a network of stump speakers enlisted from among their fellow revolutionaries, reinforced by individuals who had immigrated earlier like Gustav Körner, Friedrich Münch, and Francis Lieber. Reinhold Carl Ernst Friedrich Solger was a former member of the Young Hegelians at the University of Halle, and a former associate of Mikhail Bakunin. He traveled to Paris and participated in revolts there, then returned to Germany for the Baden uprising.<sup>[1303]</sup> After the dissolution of the Prussian National Assembly on November 14, 1848, Solger, a skilled linguist, fled Prussia for the U.S. and settled in the east. He became a professor at West Point, was eminent among the Forty-Eighters, worked for the Treasury Department and wrote *The States-System of Europe* in 1854.

Nineteen German-Americans were delegates to the first Republican convention in Philadelphia on June 17, 1856. George Schneider devised the tenth plank in the Republican platform espoused at this convention. The resolution condemned all proscriptive legislation. It openly challenged the nativistic elements within the party. In the presidential campaign that followed the convention, the Forty-Eighters

campaigned tirelessly for John Charles Frémont, the Republican nominee. The Republicans failed to win the election despite the approximately 300,000 Germans from the states of Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Wisconsin, Michigan, and Ohio who voted for Frémont.<sup>[1304]</sup>

In 1858, officials admitted Schurz to the Wisconsin bar and he set up a law practice in Milwaukee and immersed himself in antislavery activities.<sup>[1305]</sup> Schurz, upon arriving in Wisconsin, took a leading role in Wisconsin's Republican Party. He was against the Fugitive Slave Law and allegedly favored state's rights. He gave a speech, mostly in German, during the Illinois presidential campaign between Abraham Lincoln and Stephen A. Douglas. For the Germans, this assured Lincoln's victory over Douglas.

Lincoln called Schurz the "foremost among the Republican orators of the nation," and one of the most influential German Republicans. He was a member of the National Committee and managed its foreign department during which he employed German, Scandinavian, and Dutch speakers and agents to circulate a pamphlet about the prospective Republican homestead bill, *Vote Yourself a Farm*, printed in a number of foreign languages. The concept of getting something-for-nothing was very popular among foreign-born Socialists. Friedrich Hassaurek participated in the student legion in the 1848 revolution in Germany then came to the U.S. and settled in Cincinnati where he practiced law, and engaged in journalism and politics. He enlisted Republican support in Cleveland and Cincinnati. August Thieme, editor of the *Wächter am Erie*, campaigned for Lincoln throughout Ohio. Friedrich Hecker campaigned in New York and Philadelphia.<sup>[1306]</sup> Apparently, influential Forty-Eighters positioned themselves strategically throughout the country, to do in America what they failed to accomplish in Europe.

Seward of New York was the favorite candidate of the Germans. His forthright stand, during a long career, against all forms of nativism, and his high intellectual qualifications had endeared him to the German element, and he had the support of influential papers like the *Illinois Staatszeitung* and the *Baltimore Wecker*. The *Wächter am Erie* assumed that most Germans favored Ben Wade for the nomination. However, Lincoln, the shrewd politician attempted to learn a bit of the German language. He bought the German *Illinois Staatszeitung* in Springfield, Illinois, for \$400 and hired Dr. Theodore Canisius as editor, to promote his political objectives. Lincoln, by invitation, spoke to the Chicago German community on July 4, 1858 where he referred to his fellow citizens of German origin as genuine "lovers of liberty, not for special classes of men, but for all men." German workingmen thought of him as the "champion of free labor and free homesteads." The *Baltimore Turnzeitung* endorsed Lincoln in early 1860.<sup>[1307]</sup>

Immigrant Germans, who were often well educated, learned English, established newspapers, promoted Lincoln and propagated their socialistic views to indoctrinate earlier German immigrants. August Willich, a former member of the Communist League who took an active role in the revolution of 1848–1849 in Germany, edited the *Cincinnati Republican*. Gustav Körner and George Schneider were very influential in Illinois and Indiana. Henry P. Scholte was the editor of the *Pella Gazette*. However, Schurz's influence was nationwide.<sup>[1308]</sup> The refugees comprehended the essentials of the abolitionist movement and its effect on the U.S. Schurz, Gustav Körner, Franz Hoffmann, Friedrich Hecker, Judge John Bernhard Stallo, and others immersed themselves into the campaign to elect Lincoln.<sup>[1309]</sup> Many refugees published German-language newspapers all over the Union, especially in the Midwest. The *Illinois Staats-Zeitung* was virulently anti-Southern. Lincoln realized the power of the Germans in this region. Lincoln realized that the German vote was essential in the election of 1860. Schurz chaired the Wisconsin delegation to the Republican Convention in Chicago and was a member of the Republican National Committee.

In 1860, German-born residents in the northern states made up 5.74% of the total population, a sufficient percentage to act as a deciding factor in close elections. Schurz estimated that over 10,000 German voters would pick Lincoln. He campaigned for Lincoln in Ohio, Pennsylvania, Michigan and other states with a

high concentration of German immigrants. Even the Germans who had arrived in the U.S. decades before changed their allegiances after they heard him speak.<sup>[1310]</sup> Schurz alone traveled an astounding 21,000 miles speaking on behalf of Lincoln, for whom he promised and delivered 300,000 German votes.

Officials chose Chicago for the Republican convention. Each of the Northwestern states had foreign representatives among delegations. There was no proscription of foreign birth. Their respective state officials authorized Scholte, Stallo, Hassaurek, Körner, and Schurz to attend the convention. The Missouri delegation included Henry Boernstein, the editor of *Der Anzeiger des Westens*, Judge Arnold Krekel, and Frederick Münch. As soon as officials notified Lincoln of his nomination, the German-born leaders initiated a vigorous campaign to elect him. Hassaurek and Schurz, of the notification committee, spoke to huge crowds at Springfield. Both were very optimistic that he would receive the immigrant vote. The Republican Party approved of the German plank. The *Chicago Press and Tribune* and *The Staats Zeitung*, also published in Chicago, had a national circulation among the Germans. These newspapers reported Schurz's speech.<sup>[1311]</sup>

In 1860, forty-two of the delegates to the Chicago Republican Convention who nominated Lincoln were native Germans, most of who had settled in the Midwest. They wanted a definitive statement on the equality of native and foreign-born Americans. The German delegates, 1848 refugees who were now lawyers and journalists, met at Chicago's German House before the National Republican Convention to formulate "the Dutch plank" which the party adopted. The pre-convention group included prominent Forty Eighters, Kapp, Douai, Solger, Professor Johannes Gambs, Elias Peissner, Heinrich Vortriede, Dr. Adolph Wiesner, Karl Dänzer, August Becker, Jakob Müller; Dr. Hermann Kiefer; Bernhard Domschke; Dr. Johannes Georg Günther, Robert Blum, Karl Röser, Dr. Wilhelm Hoffbauer; and Carl Rotteck. Adolf Douai and Caspar Butz acted as secretaries. The delegates demanded a free Kansas, free homesteads, and were ready to support Seward, Chase, Lincoln or Wade for the presidency. Hassaurek and Schurz spoke at the Convention. Schurz claimed that 300,000 German votes hinged on whether the party incorporated the "Dutch plank" into the platform.<sup>[1312]</sup>

From the time delegates nominated Lincoln on May 19, 1860, socialists Charles A. Dana and Horace Greeley of *The New York Tribune* worked day and night until November 6, 1860 promoting Lincoln. On October 13, 1860 the newspaper declared, "The Union will in no case be shattered. It will not even be seriously shaken. It is a rock on which thousands may make shipwreck of their own hopes, fortunes, and even lives, but which will itself be unaffected by their criminal madness. Parties will rise and fall, factions may rave and cabals plot; but Saratoga and Yorktown are parts of our common country, and so will remain forever!"<sup>[1313]</sup>

In Germany, Schurz had been more involved in politics than in the military. After Lincoln won the 1860 election, he rewarded Schurz for his efforts with a diplomatic mission to Madrid during which Schurz succeeded in discouraging Spanish officials from supporting the South. However, after the war started, Schurz returned from Spain in January 1862 and requested a commission in the army. Lincoln obliged his influential friend and gave Schurz command of the Germans of the Eleventh Corps.<sup>[1314]</sup> In addition to Schurz, the Eleventh Corps was composed of von Gilsa, Schimmelfennig, Krzyzanowski, and von Steinwehr who all displayed good military skills.<sup>[1315]</sup> According to Schurz, the Federals were "ready and eager to march and fight."<sup>[1316]</sup>

During his brief stay in Spain, Schurz concluded that many European countries would side with the Confederacy. He thought that Lincoln should shift the war to a crusade against slavery. He received a commission as a brigadier-general in the volunteers in April. In June, he assumed the command of a division under John C. Frémont, and then later he fought under General Franz Sigel, another former German revolutionary, in the Second Battle of Bull Run. The military promoted Schurz to a major general

on March 14, 1862, and he fought at the Battle of Chancellorsville. He was at Gettysburg and at Chattanooga.

Schurz resigned from the volunteer service in May 1865. In 1866, he founded the *Detroit Post*. He was a senator from Missouri (1869-1875), and Secretary of the Interior from 1877 to 1881, and editor of the *New York Evening Post* from 1881 to 1884. He also became editor and joint proprietor with Emil Praetorius of the *Westliche Post* (Western Post) of St. Louis. He went to Germany in the winter of 1867-1868 and interviewed Otto von Bismarck.

Schurz was the main correspondent for the Washington Bureau of the *New York Tribune* during the winter of 1865. He assumed the job as editor-in-chief at the *Detroit Post*, where he remained until 1867. He relocated St. Louis, Missouri where he worked for the *Westliche Post*. He continued to be active in the Republican Party by campaigning for Grant. In 1868, citizens elected him to the Senate, as the first German American. He served as Senator from Missouri between 1869 and 1875. President Hayes appointed him as Secretary of the Interior. He implemented many progressive policies. He retired from the Department of the Interior in 1881. He worked as an editor of the *Evening Post* from 1881-1885, and as an editorial writer for *Harper's Weekly*. Schurz published a number of writings, including a volume of speeches, a biography of Henry Clay, an essay on Abraham Lincoln, and his *Reminiscences*.

In the *American Historical Review*, July 1911, William Dodd concluded that the Republican's effort to capture the German immigrant votes, with their support of high tariffs and free homesteads, was very successful. If not for Carl Schurz, Gustav Körner, and the editors of the *Staats-Zeitung* of Chicago, Douglas might have won.

## **Fort Sumter – Deliberate Provocation**

Socialist Ralph Waldo Emerson wrote, "When it looked as if the nation would be dismembered, pulverized into its original elements, the attack on Fort Sumter crystallized the North into a unit, and the hope of mankind was saved."<sup>[1317]</sup>

The New York City directory (1786) listed Hyman Isaac Long as a physician when he apparently resided there. On January 11, 1795, in Kingston, Jamaica, Moses Cohen appointed Hyman Isaac Long as a Deputy Inspector General in a Freemasonry organization that was a predecessor of the Scottish rite. Long later participated in Masonic activities in Virginia and South Carolina. On November 12, 1796, Hyman Isaac Long elevated seven French Masons in Charleston to the rank of Deputy Inspector General. These men were refugees from the slave rebellion in the French colony of Saint-Domingue. In 1797, Charleston was the center of American high degree Masonry when Hyman Isaac Long opened a Sublime Grand Council of Princes of the Royal Secret. Charleston was significant; it is located at the 33rd degree northern latitude. On May 31, 1801, Freemasons organized the First Highest Masonic Council there under the leadership of Hyman Isaac Long.<sup>[1318]</sup>

The states and the federal government co-owned, in equal partnership, the forts located in each of the states. The federal government functioned as the general agent and each state constructed a fort or forts for that state's exclusive protection. If a state withdrew from the Union, for whatever reason, that state automatically acquired the ownership of any forts within the state. In 1805, South Carolina ceded territory in Charleston Harbor, only on the stipulation that the central government repair or replace the existing facility within three years. If the central government failed to complete their stated obligations, then the state of South Carolina could legally cancel their contract with the federal government. In 1829, twenty-one years after they were supposed to repair or replace the fort, the federal government finally began work on the fort but they still had not completed the work by 1860. The fort had been unoccupied for over thirty years. Upon secession, South Carolina became liable to the government for any work completed on the fort and offered to pay just compensation to the government.



The South had commandeered several forts, according to the agreements they held with the federal government. Fort Sumter, the unmanned fort at the mouth of Charleston Harbor, a major Atlantic port, would inevitably be next. On December 20, 1860, South Carolina seceded from the Union. On December 26, 1860, Major Robert Anderson, a West Point graduate and a Winfield Scott protégé, moved his 126-man garrison from Fort Moultrie, also in the harbor, to Fort Sumter. He and Scott were both Freemasons. [\[1319\]](#) [\[1320\]](#)

General Winfield Scott led troops in the War of 1812, the Mexican-American War, the Black Hawk War, and the Second Seminole War. During the war, Lincoln invoked “executive privilege,” and refused to give the War Department certain dispatches he had sent to Anderson. [\[1321\]](#) After Major Anderson moved his men, the following warning appeared in *The New York Tribune* on December 28, 1860, “Let us entreat all who meditate treason to pause ere it is too late, and avoid at once the traitor’s crime and his doom.” [\[1322\]](#)

In January 1861, to provoke a response from the South, lame duck President Buchanan, a Freemason, authorized sending military *supplies* and reinforcements to the fort. The U.S. Navy chartered a civilian merchant ship, the *Star of the West*, on which they concealed additional troops bound for the fort. Marshall O. Roberts owned the ship, for which the government paid \$1,250 per day. After Lincoln initiated war against the South, Roberts, a railroad and steamship magnate, sold the Union several ships, all known to be dangerously un-seaworthy. In that process, he swindled the U.S. Treasury out of millions of dollars. [\[1323\]](#)

John McGowan, the ship’s captain, took on supplies in New York in early January 1861. McGowan then picked up 200 military recruits on Staten Island. Their destination was supposed to be a secret but a New York newspaper reported on January 7 that the ship was bound for Charleston. [\[1324\]](#) Someone sent telegrams to South Carolina Governor Francis W. Pickens warning him that a relief ship was en route. On January 9, 1861, Pickens, a Thomas Cooper disciple, directed cadets at the Morris Island Battery to fire upon the *Star of the West* as it entered Charleston Harbor. When there was no response from the fort, McGowan retreated. His superiors sent him to Texas to pick up seven companies of Union troops.

However, the ship went aground near Indianola and Earl Van Dorn and other Confederates rowed out to the ship and convinced Elisha Howes, the ship’s master that a large contingent of men was prepared to blow the *Star of the West* out of the water. Howes surrendered; the Confederates re-named the ship CSS *St. Philip* and placed it into service on May 4. In early 1862, prior to the Union’s invasion, the Confederates transferred gold and other valuables from New Orleans to Vicksburg for safekeeping. They sent the *Star* up the Yazoo River to Yazoo City, Mississippi and then they stripped it and scuttled in the Tallahatchie River in an effort to immobilize Union vessels moving toward the Yazoo River, Vicksburg’s back door. [\[1325\]](#)

On February 22, 1861, before his inauguration, Lincoln addressed an audience at Independence Hall in Philadelphia. He said, “I am filled with deep emotion at finding myself standing here, in this place...have never had a feeling...that did not spring from the sentiments embodied in the Declaration of Independence ...It was not the mere matter of the separation of the Colonies from the motherland; but that sentiment in

the Declaration of Independence which gave liberty, not alone to the people of this country, but, I hope, to the world, for all future time...I will consider myself one of the happiest men in the world, if I can help to save it. If it cannot be saved upon that principle, it will be truly awful. Now, in my view of the present aspect of affairs, there need be no bloodshed or war.”<sup>[1326]</sup>

In his inaugural address on March 4, 1861, Lincoln maintained that the purpose of the Constitution was “to form a more perfect union.” He professed that he had no intentions to invade the southern states, a prospect many people would not have even imagined. However, he implied that he intended to use force to maintain possession of what he considered federal property.<sup>[1327]</sup> Because the federal government had defaulted in its contractual obligations, the unoccupied fort was not federal property, despite his claim. He also said, “In doing this there needs to be no bloodshed or violence; and there shall be none, unless it be forced upon the national authority. The power confided to me, will be used to hold, occupy, and possess the property, and places belonging to the government, and to collect the duties and imposts (an imposed tax); but beyond what may be necessary for these objects, there will be no invasion, no using of force against, or among the people anywhere.”<sup>[1328]</sup>

On March 15, 1861, Stephen Douglas recommended the withdrawal of all the troops within the states that had seceded. He stated, “We certainly cannot justify the holding of forts there, much less the recapturing of those which have been taken, unless we intend to reduce those States themselves into subjection. I take it for granted, no man will deny the proposition, that whoever permanently holds Charleston and South Carolina is entitled to the possession of Fort Sumter.”<sup>[1329]</sup>

Officials appointed P. G. T. Beauregard, a student of Robert Anderson at West Point, as superintendent of that facility, beginning on January 23, 1861. His brother-in-law, Senator John Slidell pulled some strings to get Beauregard the appointment. Now a resident of Louisiana, Slidell was a native New Yorker and August Belmont’s Democrat Party mentor. Beauregard, a Freemason, had been an engineer under General Scott during the Mexican War. When Louisiana seceded on January 26, 1861, his superiors obviously revoked Beauregard’s orders and he became the first Confederate general on March 1, 1861. He arrived in Charleston on March 3, 1861 where he met with Governor Pickens to inspect the harbor’s defenses and take command of South Carolina forces in Charleston. On April 5, 1861, Beauregard cut off the daily supply of food to Anderson’s men at Fort Sumter from local merchants in Charleston.

For sanitization purposes, on May 6, 1861, the *Cincinnati Daily Commercial* claimed that the troops at Fort Sumter had been starving and were in desperate need of food. Lincoln, per John Nicolay’s advice, had to send troops, supposedly a humanitarian effort. They repeatedly used this assertion after the war. The troops at Fort Sumter, since December 1861, had purchased their food at local suppliers.<sup>[1330]</sup>

When Lincoln asked General Winfield Scott’s opinion of the situation at Fort Sumter, Scott said let it go. Lincoln was dissatisfied with that response and put it to members of his cabinet. Then General Scott, revising his earlier opinion, along with other soldiers, thought that Lincoln should recruit 5,000 regulars and 20,000 volunteers for six to eight months. However, War Secretary Simon Cameron, knowing that food would be running out by April 15, 1861 suggested abandonment of the fort.<sup>[1331]</sup>

Postmaster Montgomery Blair, a radical hot-tempered West Point graduate and a founding leader of the Republican Party, wanted aggressive action and threatened to resign unless the fort was re-provisioned. Treasury Secretary Salmon P. Chase (1861-1864) wanted to retain the fort, as it was his duty to protect the tax revenue.<sup>[1332]</sup>

Between his inauguration on March 4, and April 12, Lincoln goaded the South into making a mistake. He notified them that he was going to replenish supplies, an indication of a longer military occupation of Fort Sumter by Anderson’s garrison. Confederate President Jefferson Davis met with his cabinet on April 9,

1861 during which some members urged him to take action. Secretary of State Robert Toombs said, “The firing on that fort will inaugurate a civil war greater than any the world has ever seen. Mr. President, if this is true, it is suicide, it is murder, and will lose us every friend in the North. You will wantonly strike a hornet’s nest, which extends from mountains to ocean; and legions, now quiet, will swarm out and sting us to death. It is unnecessary; it puts us in the wrong. It is fatal.” Other cabinet members disagreed. Lincoln wanted the South to make the first move,<sup>[1333]</sup> which he provoked by sending, not one, but several ships, supposedly to bring supplies. One ship had been adequate in January. The additional ships were to trigger a response.

All negotiations failed and Beauregard demanded Anderson’s surrender. On April 12, 1861, at 4:30 a.m. when Beauregard saw the Union ships approaching, he ordered the shelling of Fort Sumter from nearby Fort Johnson. The Confederates, as predicted, viewed the numerous ships as an act of aggression. The offensive lasted for 34 hours. On April 14, 1861, Anderson surrendered as they were out of food and ammunition. On April 18, 1861, he sent a formal surrender message after boarding the steamship *Baltic*. No one was injured in what looked like a July 4 fireworks display. Anderson and his troops returned home. Northern commercial interests quickly came to Lincoln’s aid. The North, perhaps because of damaged pride, was ready to spend money and sacrifice lives over the Fort Sumter incident in which, like the Tonkin incident, almost 100 years later, no one was hurt.<sup>[1334]</sup>

On the evening of the Fort Sumter bombardment, Lincoln was exceptionally jovial at a reception. Without the Fort Sumter incident, it would have been impossible for him to raise an army. The news of the bombardment was particularly good news and well received by the Republican Party.<sup>[1335]</sup> On April 15, 1861, Lincoln issued a proclamation to all Union governors for a militia of 75,000 volunteers to serve for three months.<sup>[1336]</sup> He said, “Whereas the laws of the United States have been for some time past and now are opposed, and the execution thereof obstructed in the States of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas by combinations too powerful to be suppressed by the ordinary course of judicial proceedings, or by the powers vested in the marshals by law.”<sup>[1337]</sup>

He covered his actions under the Act of Congress of 1795, February 28, 1795, which allowed the President to use military force to put down an insurrection or foreign invasion within a state. Thus, he bypassed Congress, the only body that can constitutionally declare war (Article 1, Section 8). However, there was neither a foreign invasion nor an insurrection. He may have been aware that his actions were illegal and unconstitutional. Ultimately, during the length of the war, more than 1.5 million men served in the Union army and over 300,000 fought for the South.<sup>[1338]</sup>

On April 17, 1861, Governor John Letcher of Virginia sent this message to Lincoln, “I have only to say that the militia of Virginia will not be furnished to the powers of Washington for any such use or purpose as they have in view. Your object is to subjugate the Southern states and the requisition made upon me for such an object in my judgment not within the purview of the constitution or the Act of 1795, will not be complied with. You have chosen to inaugurate civil war; having done so we will meet you in a spirit as determined as the administration has exhibited toward the South.”<sup>[1339]</sup> When the war ended in April 1865, the government jailed Letcher in Washington for almost seven weeks.<sup>[1340]</sup> In 1864, General David Hunter’s Union troops torched Letcher’s home.

A militia is a call for citizens to arm themselves and perform as a police power. Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee responded by seceding from the Union. They committed to fight with the Confederacy against the Union. Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky and Missouri maintained strong allegiances to the Union and did not secede. In Missouri, a battle erupted between those who aligned themselves with Governor Jackson, an ardent secessionist, and Union loyalists. The Union depended on the loyalty of the large German population. As the war began, Lincoln claimed that his primary objective

was “preserving the Union.”<sup>[1341]</sup>

Lincoln imposed naval blockades on April 19, 1861 to halt the shipment of food and military equipment to the rural South. Opportunists used private ships to run the blockades to smuggle in supplies. Thomas W. House (Huis), a Freemason, amassed a fortune smuggling supplies. His son, Edward Mandell House would be President Wilson’s chief advisor. The South had to purchase warfare implements abroad in England and France. Secretary of State William H. Seward wanted to keep these nations out of the war and warned the British government “If any European power provokes war, we shall not shrink from it.” He also warned the French that support of the confederacy would result in warfare with the United States.<sup>[1342]</sup>

Anderson’s “bravery” at Fort Sumter immediately elevated him to hero status. His superiors promoted him to Brigadier General Anderson on May 15, 1861. Before he left Fort Sumter, he had instinctively thought to retrieve the U.S. flag, which people displayed at a “patriotic” recruiting rally in New York’s Union Square. After his participation in New York, he recruited troops throughout the North. The government then assigned him as the Commander of the Department of Kentucky, a neutral border state. Ill health forced his resignation. On October 6, 1861, General William T. Sherman would replace him. Exactly four years later, Anderson returned to Charleston to raise the flag during a jubilant ceremony at the recaptured fort.

On July 3, 1861, Lincoln spoke with Senator Orville Browning, a close friend of twenty years and revealed that he had intended to provoke an incident. He wrote in his diary, “He told me the very first thing placed in his hands after his inauguration was a letter from Major Anderson announcing the impossibility of defending or relieving Sumter. That he called the cabinet together and consulted General Scott – that Scott concurred with Anderson, and the cabinet, with the exception of Post Master Blair were for evacuating the Fort...He himself conceived the idea, and proposed sending supplies, without an attempt to reinforce, giving notice of the fact to South Carolina Governor Pickens. The plan succeeded. They attacked Sumter – it fell, and thus, did more service than it otherwise could.”<sup>[1343]</sup>

Original correspondence between Lincoln and former Naval Captain Gustavus V. Fox, Assistant Navy Secretary, suggests that he willfully provoked the military officials in South Carolina into firing on Fort Sumter. It was politically essential that the South fire the first shot so that he could claim that the Confederacy started the war.<sup>[1344]</sup> Fox was with Commodore Perry in Asia and knew all about how to provoke an incident that erupted into premeditated violence and bloodshed.

Rushmore G. Horton wrote, “And it was a cunning trick, precisely worthy of Mr. Seward and Mr. Lincoln, to cause the bombardment of Fort Sumter, in order to ‘fire up the Northern heart,’ as they called it...The war was gotten up with as much trick and skill in management as a showman uses...Our whole country was placarded all over with war posters of all colors and sizes. Drums were beating and bands playing at every corner...the ministers of the Gospel were praying and preaching to the horrible din of the war music, and the profane eloquence of slaughter.”<sup>[1345]</sup> Horton continues, “There was little chance for any man to exercise his reason, and if he attempted such a thing he was knocked down and sometimes murdered. If an editor ventured to appeal to the Constitution, mobs destroyed his office, or his paper suspended by ‘the order of the Government.’ The moment the war opened for the emancipation of the Negroes, the liberty of the white man was suspended. The historian of these shameful and criminal events needs no other proof that the managers of the war knew that they were perpetrating a great crime than the fact that they refused to allow any man to reason or speak in opposition to their action. The cause of truth and justice always flourishes most with all the reasoning that argument and controversy can give it. Whenever men attempt to suppress argument and free speech, we may be sure that they know their cause to be a bad one.”<sup>[1346]</sup> Like other war presidents, historians and numerous others have lauded Lincoln as a

decisive leader for his quick military response to the Confederate “attack” of the fort.

# America's Socialist Revolution

## Lincoln and the American System

If an individual acts like a Socialist, speaks like a Socialist, enacts legislation like a Socialist, abolishes freedom like a Socialist and provokes a revolution like a Socialist, then that person is probably a Socialist. Frederic Bastiat said, "Socialism is Legal Plunder" He also wrote, "*The state is the great fiction by which everybody tries to live at the expense of everyone else.*" Socialism, the collective ownership of the means of production and distribution, a political system attributed to Karl Marx, one of the architects of class warfare, predictably appeals to the downtrodden masses. The elite ruling class usually exploits the masses in most industrialized nations through their control over the currency, government policies and resources.

The telegraph, first established in 1839, expanded into a transcontinental telegraph line, completed on October 26, 1861, which brought the extensive borders of the U.S. into contact with Washington. Thomas A. Scott, a superintendent at the Pennsylvania Railroad, managed all telegraph lines, adjacent the railroads. Scott equipped a substantial military force and supervised the railroad and transportation lines. He facilitated the movement of supplies and troops on his railroads and once managed the transfer of twenty-three thousand soldiers, with provisions and baggage, a distance of 1,233 miles in eleven and a half days, from Bristoe Station, Virginia, to Chattanooga, Tennessee.<sup>[1347]</sup>

Early purveyors of the American System, John C. Calhoun and Henry Clay, advocated a national bank and a national currency, but without Congressional regulation, as mandated by the Constitution. They believed in protectionist high tariffs, a form of public plunder,<sup>[1348]</sup> to finance internal improvements including a national transportation and communication network. The federal government, through the Homestead Act, signed into law by President Lincoln on May 20, 1862, managed the distribution of land. They allocated an abundance of land to private mining, railroad, and timber corporations, making the Republican Party and its leaders very popular. The immigration bureau encouraged unrestrained immigration. These two factors, the Homestead Act and immigration, contributed to the nation's economic output and accelerated population growth into the American west.

The Republican Party, during Lincoln's War, implemented nearly every aspect of the American System, especially selective high tariffs which began in 1861 and lasted until 1932. The 1860 Republican National Convention, with Henry C. Carey's guidance and Horace Greeley's propaganda, placed a pro-tariff plank on their platform. Members of the House appointed Ohio Representative John Sherman as chair of the Committee on Ways and Means where he introduced it in the spring session of 1860 and it passed the House on May 10, 1860. They adopted the Morrill Tariff on March 2, 1861. Northerners in certain states supported the tariff while Southerners, who imported basic essentials, opposed it.

The American System, a mercantile economic system that Alexander Hamilton advanced was suspiciously similar to Rothschild's European plan, as described in his *Hazard Circular* of July 1862 wherein capital controlled labor by controlling wages.<sup>[1349]</sup> Capital or capitalists, in collaboration with the government, control wages by creating corporate structures in which they employ thousands of people. Lincoln, a former railroad lawyer with close connections to that industry, focused on controlling transportation and communications during the war. Wartime also saw the growth of private industry related to supplying the troops and afterwards, these industries expanded as corporations because of their previous close connections to government legislators. The American System encourages and supports certain industries beneficial to the government's purposes.

In 1848, Andrew Carnegie, from a family of radical reformers, had emigrated from Scotland with his

family. His father William Carnegie, belonged to the Chartist Movement, a British-based group composed of radical socialists who demanded revolutionary changes. William was the secretary of the local Chartist Association and wrote articles for Cobbett's *Political Register* and letters in the Chartist newspaper, *The True Scotsman*.<sup>[1350]</sup>

Andrew Carnegie was working as a messenger boy in the Pittsburgh office of the Ohio Telegraph Company when he met Thomas A. Scott, of the Pennsylvania Railroad. Scott hired Carnegie as a telegrapher and his personal secretary. Carnegie worked his way up to Superintendent of the Pittsburgh Division and began investing his earnings in railroad-related industries. Prior to Lincoln's war, Carnegie formed a partnership with George M. Pullman, the inventor of an upscale sleeping car for first class travelers.

Scott acquired the cooperation of Edward S. Sanford of the American Telegraph Company who set restrictions on ciphering messages to all operators. Civil cooperation and the management of the telegraph service in Washington were essential. The government appointed Sanford as an official censor. The military employed existing commercial systems to build more than 15,000,000 miles of lines exclusively for military purposes. Authorities attached the telegraph service, a civilian business, to the Quartermaster's Department. Anson Stager, the co-founder of Western Union and the first president of Western Electric Manufacturing Company directed operations. To legitimize Stager's actions, the military commissioned him on November 25, 1861. His subordinate, Thomas T. Eckert, a Western Union executive, later became Assistant Secretary of War (1865-1867).

People accused Scott of price gauging and profiteering so Congress convened an investigation. Simon Cameron, the Secretary of War, owned Northern Central Railroad stock. Both men allocated a disproportionate amount of business to their respective companies. The Pennsylvania Railroad's earnings grew by forty percent while the Northern Central Railroad doubled its earnings in 1861. Unfortunately, the government was unable to prove any misconduct because of faulty recordkeeping.<sup>[1351]</sup> War Secretary Simon Cameron directed all telegraph operations. The individual field operators were independent of the generals that they worked with. They rendered complete obedience to the corporation representatives who now dominated the War Department. In 1864, the War Secretary would prohibit his commanding generals from interfering with the cipher-operators and restricted the use of cipher-books to civilian telegraph experts, approved and appointed by the War Secretary.<sup>[1352]</sup> Stanton centralized all essential telegraph operations in the telegraph room at the War Department.<sup>[1353]</sup>

Lincoln, with Republican support, created the Bureau of Agriculture on May 15, 1862, purportedly to feed the troops, but it actually imposed federal policies on farming, agriculture, and food, directed by a commissioner. They also authorized the first of the Morrill Land-Grant Colleges Act on July 2, 1862 to fund a system of industrial colleges, which allocated 30,000 acres of federal land to each eligible state, for its use in creating institutions to teach science, classical studies, agriculture, military strategies and other pursuits. This endeavor, like other such programs, encouraged political corruption, eased the way for a myriad of giant firms, and the robber barons, cohorts of big government.<sup>[1354]</sup> Skull and Bones, possibly the U.S. chapter of the Illuminati, acquired all of the Morrill Act land grant entitlements for New York and Connecticut, which they applied to any new construction at Cornell and Yale.<sup>[1355]</sup>

Lincoln, a consummate supervisor, managed every detail of the war efforts. Sanford and Eckert, Union censors, enlarged their military authority and actually made military decisions through censorship and withholding messages. Lincoln visited the telegraph room daily and spent long hours in the cipher room pondering political and military conditions. The telegraph room was the site of conferences held with cabinet officers, generals, congressional representatives, and others. Lincoln authored the first draft of the Emancipation Proclamation in the telegraph room. The Union intercepted and decoded Confederate cipher

messages which fell into their hands. During Sherman's march to the sea, the Union tapped the Confederate wires. Lincoln communicated with western military commanders who were waging war against the Indians.<sup>[1356]</sup>

Wartime demand for oil and illuminants had dramatically increased. The region sixty miles north Pittsburgh became the center of the oil rush when oil bubbled to the surface of Oil Creek on the Storey family farm. William Coleman, Carnegie's neighbor, leased the Storey family farm in 1859. He was making money even with the fluctuating oil prices, ranging from ten cents to five dollars a barrel. Coleman and his partners organized a joint-stock company to raise capital to build better facilities to increase profits. Carnegie visited the area and invested. In 1863, he earned \$17,868.67 from an initial investment of a block of discounted \$10 shares. He invited Scott and others to invest.<sup>[1357]</sup>

Carnegie got rich by investing and manipulating stock in companies like Western Union and Union Pacific. He watched people merge and absorb small companies into what became Western Union, which rivaled the Pacific and Atlantic Telegraph Company. In 1863, he purchased a small amount of Western Union stock. The railroads had agreed to allow the telegraph companies to use their exclusive right-of-ways rather than go to the huge expense of acquiring their own. Then Carnegie and his associates at the Pennsylvania Railroad set up a front company – the Keystone Telegraph Company that would act as franchise brokers. He arranged for additional franchises on railroads controlled by the Pennsylvania Railroad and managed to acquire massive stocks in the Pacific and Atlantic Telegraph Company with very little effort.<sup>[1358]</sup>

Pittsburgh became a center for wartime production of iron products – gunboat armor, ammunition and other industrial products. Carnegie collaborated with others to establish steel production, which became the major source of his fortune. Before the war, he had invested in the iron industry. The steel industry would become the railroad's biggest customer. Franklin Garrett of the Atlanta Historical Society said, "It was largely the railroad that enabled the North to win the war." Each side attempted to destroy the other side's rail lines. It was a constant battle of destruction and rebuilding.<sup>[1359]</sup>

In just seven weeks, during May and June of 1864, sixty-five thousand Union soldiers were dead, wounded or missing. With the Conscription Act of 1863, General Ulysses S. Grant, the Commanding General of the U.S. Army (1864-1865), knew he had an unlimited number of soldiers to squander in the war. Much to Carnegie's surprise, the Union drafted him in the summer of 1864, at about the time that General William T. Sherman was preparing for his infamous March to the Sea, the Savannah Campaign in Georgia that lasted from November to December 1864. Carnegie had assumed that his service with Scott sheltered him from the Conscription Act. He was unwilling to exchange his cozy life and risk death for the hazardous life of a soldier, fighting in the South, so he paid \$850 for a substitute. General Grant, justifiably denounced as a butcher by both the North and the South, had begun a relentless campaign toward Richmond, Virginia. The Union captured Richmond, the Confederate capital, in April 1865.<sup>[1360]</sup>

The federal bureaucracy grew to about 70,000 civilians by 1863.<sup>[1361]</sup> Lincoln's War permanently transformed the character of the federal bureaucracy as it added thousands of employees just to initiate and maintain the war effort. This phenomenon actually introduced the military economy that exists today wherein a sizeable portion of America's population and individual communities depend economically on warfare-related production. Following the war, the government became responsible for paying pensions and caring for the injured veterans. On June 22, 1870, the government created the Justice Department to accommodate the legal issues arising from a person's "service" to the nation. The federal bureaucracy expanded from the single office of Attorney General, which Congress created on September 26, 1789, into an entire department.

The railroad and freight industry encouraged others in their entrepreneurial efforts. Philip Armour of

Chicago started a profitable meatpacking business selling pork to the Union Army. However, the high-priced pork of questionable quality and origin frequently made the soldiers ill.<sup>[1362]</sup> Armour had tried his hand at mining, farming and as a grocer. He anticipated Lee's surrender at Appomattox, on April 9, 1865. Therefore, Armour quickly boarded a train for New York and the stock exchange where he began selling pork short on the local exchange. When Grant was victorious, pork prices dropped and Armour made \$2 million, which he invested in his meatpacking company in Chicago, well served by the infamous stockyards and a railway network. His business grew as he began exporting canned meats to Europe. By 1900, Armour and Company had grown into one of the biggest meatpackers in the world. This industry was the subject of Upton Sinclair's *The Jungle*.<sup>[1363]</sup>

Boston capitalists, headed by John C. Stanton, gained control of the Alabama and the Chattanooga Railroads after Lincoln's War. Stanton and his associates merged the two railroads in November 1868. Due to non-payment of state bonds, the State of Alabama seized the property in mid-1871. In November 1877, Frédéric Emile d'Erlanger and other foreign investors, under the auspices of the Emile Erlanger and Company, an English corporation reorganized several separate railroads as the Alabama Great Southern Railroad (AGS). The corporation, by 1881, had purchased every main railway between the bankrupt South and Cincinnati. Baron Frederic Emile d'Erlanger was reportedly Cecil Rhodes' partner in his apartheid projects in Africa.<sup>[1364]</sup>

Thomas A. Scott, president of the Pennsylvania Railroad, from 1874 to 1880, then the largest corporation in the world, played a leading role in drafting the Compromise of 1877, which signaled the end of Reconstruction following Lincoln's War and ended the Federal occupation of the South. Scott proposed what people called the "Scott Plan" which required the southern politicians to endorse government subsidies for numerous infrastructure improvements, especially the Texas and Pacific Railway, which was federally chartered and given generous land grants on March 3, 1871. It was to construct a southern transcontinental railroad between Marshall, Texas, and San Diego, California. Scott became the firm's president in 1872. By 1881, the company had completed only 972 miles of track. The firm went bankrupt in 1888 and then set up the Texas Pacific Land Trust with a net of 3.5 million acres of land, which it still owned as of December 31, 2006, the largest private landowner in Texas. The Trust receives oil and gas royalties to this day.

Carnegie, as a major stockholder in Atlantic and Pacific Railroad, steered their construction work to Carnegie, now a construction contractor. In December 1872, he made a secret deal with Western Union for the exchange of part of the vast amount of Pacific shares in his control for Western Union shares. Western wanted to buy controlling interest in Pacific – cheaply. Carnegie, still controlling a vast amount of Pacific shares under his crony's names, then began selling and exchanging stocks and created a façade bonanza, which increased Pacific's stock. People rushed to buy stock. He and his friends dumped their Pacific shares while acquiring significant interest in Western Union, a company that Jay Gould had been attempting to take over. Despite the 622,000 deaths, the war was highly profitable for many people.

While the spoils system began decades before Lincoln took office, it grew exponentially during his administration. The spoils system granted jobs to the associates, friends or relatives of whoever won the election, not based on merit but on association. New administrations meant the new administration fired the existing employees and replaced them with their own group of political supporters. The spoils system morphed into guaranteed federal or public employment, maintained at taxpayer expense, despite skills or aptitude. On January 16, 1883, Congress passed the Civil Service Reform Act, known as the Pendleton Act, to encourage a merit-based system of public jobs. While the bill's intentions were commendable, it did not address the basic question of the federal government employing a growing segment of the nation's citizens in non-product-related labor, paid for by another segment of the population.

The Civil Service Reform Act necessitated the creation of the bipartisan Civil Service Commission to oversee the reforms. With all new legislation, up to and including the PATRIOT Act and Obama's healthcare, the government creates new departments requiring even more employees to execute that new legislation. The so-called merit system initially applied to only about ten percent of federal jobs but currently it applies to more than ninety percent. The merit system provides unequal job security to federal employees. Under the merit system, allegedly no longer based on political preferences or associations, civil employees enjoy job security unparalleled in the private sector. Meanwhile, the government facilitates the outsourcing of jobs in the private sector through trade agreements beneficial to big corporations that have financial connections to legislators.

Congressional leaders, financial benefactors of monopoly corporatism, allegedly broke up the Chicago-based beef trust (Armour, Cudahy, Morris, Swift and Wilson) through the Packers and Stockyards Act of 1921. Government regulations typically burden small business firms but leave the larger corporations who make healthy political contributions alone. Despite government regulations, reasonable competition existed until the Reagan Administration.

Reagan and his vice president, George H. W. Bush, ignored anti-trust legislation and allowed corporate mergers to devour smaller firms. In 1970, the top four meat packing firms slaughtered about 21% of the nation's beef. By 2000, ConAgra, Iowa Beef Processors (IBP, nation's largest red meat producer), Excel Corporation and National Beef (fourth largest processor) slaughtered about 84% of the nation's cattle and consequently controlled prices.<sup>[1365]</sup> Since 1979, Excel Corporation has been a wholly owned subsidiary of Cargill, infamous for animal abuse.<sup>[1366]</sup>

Many meatpacking plants have returned to the exploitative, dangerous conditions described by Upton Sinclair. Wages, once protected by organized labor, have plummeted. By 1983, worker's wages "fell below the average U.S. manufacturing wage" and had further declined by twenty-five percent in 2002. Immigrants, willing to work for less, have replaced many middle class laborers. Rather than outsourcing labor to Third World countries, the meat and poultry industries are importing Third World laborers and "reproducing developing country employment conditions here."<sup>[1367]</sup> Transnational corporations enhance their profits by exploiting labor and sales elsewhere. Tyson Foods formed a joint venture with Jiangsu Jinghai Poultry Industry Group Co. Ltd., to raise, process and sell chickens in east China under the Tyson brand name with owning seventy percent of the venture.<sup>[1368]</sup>

## **Lincoln, the Great Divider**

The North shaped the nation's propaganda for the terrible war, before and after. Author Phillip S. Paludan writes that Lincoln deserves the title of "the Great Communicator" more than any contemporary politician does.<sup>[1369]</sup> Additionally, he deserves the title of "the Great Divider" because he used his communication skills to provoke division. He was a skillful propagandist and was what authors Anthony Pratkanis and Elliot Aronson call a "Persuasion Agent."<sup>[1370]</sup> His propaganda shaped American society. Currently, the U.S. is the most propagandized nation in the world, a process that began early in the nineteenth century. The best propagandist includes adamant denial and he always downplayed his own influence. He said, "Public opinion is everything in this country."<sup>[1371]</sup> He masterfully used allegory, parables, fables, and metaphors. His phrases and words were extraordinarily well chosen and appropriate to his audience and the power to persuade and mesmerize.<sup>[1372]</sup> Every "free" country uses propaganda to manipulate the populace. Democracies rely on persuasion to shape opinion instead of coercion as in a totalitarian society.

On June 17, 1858, in Springfield, Illinois, Lincoln gave his famous *House Divided* speech in which he pointed out numerous divisive factors as if he were making a case for war. He concluded by summarizing,

“We cannot absolutely know that all these exact adaptations are the result of preconcert. But when we see a lot of framed timbers, different portions of which we know have been gotten out at different times and places and by different workmen, Stephen (Douglas), Franklin (Pierce), Roger (Taney), and James (Buchanan), for instance, and when we see these timbers joined together, and see they exactly make the frame of a house or a mill, all the tenons and mortises exactly fitting, and all the lengths and proportions of the different pieces exactly adapted to their respective places, and not a piece too many or too few, not omitting even scaffolding, or, if a single piece be lacking, we see the place in the frame exactly fitted and prepared yet to bring such piece in, in such a case, we find it impossible not to believe that Stephen and Franklin and Roger and James all understood one another from the beginning, and all worked upon a common plan or draft drawn up before the first blow was struck.”<sup>[1373]</sup>

Senator Lincoln’s speech set up the battle lines for an imminent war designed to strengthen the federal government at the expense of states’ rights. Lincoln, not a religious man, quoted the bible, “A house divided against itself cannot stand. I believe this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free. I do not expect the union to be dissolved. I do not expect the house to fall – but I do expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing or all the other.”<sup>[1374]</sup>

There was a series of confrontational congressional actions – the Kansas-Nebraska Act, maneuvered through Congress by Senator Stephen Douglas on May 30, 1854, which instigated the Kansas Border War (1854-1858) between pro-slavery and anti-slavery factions where at least 200 people died. It functioned as a proxy war preceding Lincoln’s War. John Brown, certainly a paid agitator with no personal resources, directed the Pottawatomie Massacre on May 24-25, 1856 in retaliation for the attack on Lawrence in December 1855. Later Brown raided Harper’s Ferry (October 16, 1859). The Dred Scott case in 1856-1857 was obviously bankrolled by interested parties on both sides of the debate who certainly cared nothing about Dred Scott.<sup>[1375]</sup>

Brown certainly did not launch a bloody attack on Harper’s Ferry just because a few people were disgruntled over a bad law when officials could have easily introduced better legislation.<sup>[1376]</sup> In 1842, Allan Pinkerton (1819-1884), a Chartist, a member of a radical social movement in the United Kingdom in the mid-1800s, came to the U.S. to avoid an arrest warrant in Glasgow. He was the son of a Chartist police officer and the founder of Glasgow Democratic Club.<sup>[1377]</sup> He settled in Chicago, was an abolitionist and financially aided John Brown, an early-day terrorist. In February 1855, he started the Pinkerton National Detective Agency and was later the head of the Union Intelligence Service in 1861–1862.

The Dred Scott decision adjudicated that Congress could not prohibit slavery from any territory. Some Northerners denounced and denied the permanency of the court’s ruling. Some Southerners felt that even the Constitution was no assurance of their rights within the Union. In 1859 John Brown, an anti-slavery fanatic, raided Harper’s Ferry, Virginia, allegedly to liberate the slaves. Federal troops arrested Brown and after a trial executed him on December 2, 1859. Horace Greeley, of *The New York Times* wrote, “The noblest manhood in America swings off the gallows of a felon.” Some Southerners thought that Greeley expressed the majority opinion of the North.<sup>[1378]</sup> On January 11, 1860, Marx told Friedrich Engels, “In my opinion, the biggest things that are happening in the world today are on the one hand the movement of the slaves in America started by the death of John Brown, and on the other the movement of the serfs in Russia.”<sup>[1379]</sup>

The string of interconnected events propelling the country towards a four-year bloodbath were part of a diabolical, well-planned conspiracy beginning with the mass marketing of Harriet Beecher Stowe’s *Uncle Tom’s Cabin*, the Kansas-Nebraska Act in 1854 which precipitated the Kansas Civil War in 1855 and 1856, and then the Dred Scott case in 1856 and 1857, followed by Buchanan’s commendation of the Lecompton Constitution in 1858.<sup>[1380]</sup> Chief Justice Roger B. Taney wrote the Supreme Court’s decision in

the Dred Scott case. He was always close to the private bankers.

Lincoln persuaded the North to relinquish the ideals of individual equality in favor of “social order,” an environment where individual rights were subservient to “institutional authority.” The Emancipation Proclamation, September 22, 1862, an executive order, followed the wholesale slaughter of Antietam. He viewed it as a victory and was the “instrument” that “reconciled Lincoln’s view of liberty for all with his oath to preserve the Union.”<sup>[1381]</sup> The *Springfield Republican*, pronounced the Emancipation Proclamation as “the greatest social and political revolution of the age.” General Henry W. Halleck, who became general in chief, admitted that, “The character of the war has very much changed within the last year. There is no possible hope of reconciliation with the rebels...we must conquer the rebels or be conquered by them.”<sup>[1382]</sup> Lincoln exploited the bloodbath of Antietam to shift the focus of the war to emancipation. It is relatively easy to manipulate a traumatized, vulnerable citizenry until it acquiesces to the direction that a persuasive leader wishes to pursue. This also appears to have been the case with September 11, 2001.

Charles A. Dana assured us that Lincoln knew exactly when to issue the proclamation. If it were premature, it would not have been as efficacious. The North would have rejected the proclamation at the beginning of the war.<sup>[1383]</sup> Lincoln drafted the document, probably in November, and gave a copy to each of his private secretaries, John Nicolay (the first draft) and John Hay. However, proper timing for the document’s public presentation was essential. The proclamation altered the direction of the war from mere containment of slavery to the southern states to complete elimination. On Thursday, November 19, 1863, Lincoln delivered the Gettysburg Address at the dedication of the Soldiers’ National Cemetery in Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, four and a half months after the battle. In this address, he justified the Emancipation Proclamation, which led to a war surge in which he talked about healing the nation, preserving the Union and reuniting with the “rebels.” More than anything, he had to provide a reason why all of these soldiers died.<sup>[1384]</sup>



Edward Everett, who studied at Göttingen University, was a powerful speaker and orator and a huge Lincoln supporter. He gave a two-hour oration at Gettysburg that preceded Lincoln’s Gettysburg address. The facilitators actually scheduled him to be the main speaker. They invited Lincoln to dedicate the grounds and nothing more. He was a Republican elector from Massachusetts for the 1864 election.<sup>[1385]</sup> He had been Secretary of State, U.S. Senator, U.S. Representative, Governor of Massachusetts, president of Harvard University, and Vice Presidential candidate. Interestingly, this old photo clearly shows him giving the sign of Satan, the horned god referred to as “El Diablo,” also known as the mana cornuta, the international sign of Satan.

## Folks, It Wasn’t About Slavery

President Abraham Lincoln said, “My paramount objective is to save the Union and it is not either to save or destroy slavery. If I could save the Union without freeing any slave, I would do it.”<sup>[1386]</sup> In 1867, Lysander Spooner, the political philosopher, wrote, “On the part of the North, the war was carried on, not to liberate slaves, but by a government that had always perverted and violated the Constitution, to keep

the slaves in bondage; and was still willing to do so, if the slaveholders could be thereby induced to stay in the Union.”<sup>[1387]</sup>

Slavery ended peacefully in other areas of the world except for the slave revolt in Haiti in 1794, which occurred under entirely different circumstances. Oligarchs resort to revolution, in every generation, in order to expand state powers. Some of New England’s militant, vocal abolitionists demanded immediate abolition of slavery in the South. They called for violent slave uprisings, which would have inevitably led to massive deaths as in Haiti. Northern abolitionists published a terrorist manifesto and attempted to smuggle 100,000 copies into the South. This hateful publication depicted examples of how slaves might murder their masters. In 1859, the Harpers Ferry attack increased political and racial tensions. Lincoln and other Republicans endorsed and financed such terrorist acts against the South.

Contrary to everything that Establishment historians have told us, the misnamed Civil War was not about abolishing slavery. The mythical justification of immediately liberating the slaves, demanded by the Radical Republicans, caused the battle-field-related deaths of at least 622,000 people and the serious injury to another million people. Lincoln provoked an unnecessary, bloody war to further his political vision of a strong state, which also happened to be an Illuminati goal. Lincoln, the so-called “constitutional dictator” was never concerned with the moral injustices of slavery.<sup>[1388]</sup>

Contemporary Neo-Conservative and Neo-Marxist talking heads still claim that the North fought the war to free the slaves. In that, they agree with Marx who deceptively claimed that the South wanted to expand slavery to the rest of the country. Marx argued, “The war of the Southern Confederacy is, therefore, not a war of defense, but a war of conquest, a war of conquest for the extension and perpetuation of slavery.” Lincoln, agreeing with Marx, claimed, “One section of our country believes slavery is right, and ought to be extended, while the other believes it is wrong, and ought not to be extended.”<sup>[1389]</sup> Lincoln, Marx and the contemporary left and right repetitively propagate the same hoax, which apparently makes it official regardless of the facts. Marx and others purposefully perpetuated the misleading interpretation of the war during and after that bloody revolution. His explanation is now a part of the traditional historiography in the U.S. and Britain.

Before the Revolutionary War, the Southern colonies wanted to petition England’s king to end the African slave trade. Jefferson wanted to insert criticism about the African slave trade into the Declaration of Independence but someone removed the statement to avoid infuriating the New Englanders who were making huge profits from slave trading. Jefferson ceded the Louisiana Purchase to the Union on the condition that the government prohibits slavery in the territory. Slavery received a twenty-year grace period when the states adopted the Constitution. In 1808, Congress legislated against slave trading and 95% of the Congress, of all the states, agreed. Representatives from four states wanted to retain slavery – two from the South and two from the North. The South never attempted to expand slavery.<sup>[1390]</sup>

In 1850, the total number of slaveholders in the South’s slaveholding areas was 347,525 out of a total white population of about six million. Slave owners, mostly elite planters, made up less than a third of the Southern whites.<sup>[1391]</sup> The Fugitive Slave Act of September 18, 1850 demanded the return of runaway slaves. Even before his election, Lincoln endorsed that act, and by default, endorsed slavery, as evidenced in two letters to Salmon P. Chase, dated June 9 and June 20, 1859. He wrote, “Although I think Congress has Constitutional authority to enact a Fugitive Slave law, I have never elaborated an opinion upon the subject.”<sup>[1392]</sup> If a Southern slave-owner wanted assurance of retaining his “property,” staying in the Union would have been the best choice.<sup>[1393]</sup> Lincoln said that he would not interfere with slavery and supported a new constitutional amendment that would further protect the institution. Northern businessmen were not interested in interfering with Southern slavery; it financially benefited them. The slavery issue was a pretext used by both sides. The tariff issue would not have ignited so much passion and unanimity.

Therefore, they selected slavery, a huge emotional political ploy.<sup>[1394]</sup>

Leading Freemasons directed the slave trade, owned the plantations, and managed the cotton industry. They, with their wealth, controlled U.S. politics and installed compliant politicians in both the North and the South. Slavery and states' rights were the justifications used to execute the horrific war. Most Americans were not in the slave trade, did not own slaves or plantations. Nor did the average citizen own a textile mill where the cotton was processed. The wealthy elite, the minority, used their influence and money to agitate the rest of the population into a hateful frenzy, sufficient to wage a fratricidal war and kill their fellow citizens.<sup>[1395]</sup>

In his first inaugural on March 4, 1861, Lincoln said, "I have no purpose, directly or indirectly, to interfere with the institution of slavery in the States where it exists. I believe I have no lawful right to do so, and I have no inclination to do so."<sup>[1396]</sup> The Crittenden Resolution, passed July 25, 1861, confirmed Congress's agreement that they would wage the war only for the reunion of the states, and not for abolishing the South's "peculiar institution" of slavery. The war was not about "overthrowing or interfering with the rights or established institutions of those States," but to "defend and maintain the supremacy of the Constitution and to preserve the Union." If the seceding states returned to the Union, slavery could remain intact.

In April 1861, when Lincoln called for volunteers, Boston's black community willingly responded to defend the government with their "lives, fortunes and sacred honor." People responded willingly from all over the North. Blacks were willing to raise their own regiments as they hoped that military service might result in gaining full citizenship rights. Others still had relatives enslaved in the South and military service demonstrated their condemnation of slavery. However, white troops, supported by Washington's top officials, had resolved to keep their battle against the South a white man's conflict. Lincoln did not think blacks would make good soldiers and said he did not want to make the war about slavery.<sup>[1397]</sup>

The Union enacted a draft on March 3, 1863 authorizing the president to draft citizens between the ages of twenty and forty-five for a three-year term as of July 1863 with additional drafts in March, July and December 1864. An individual could provide a suitable substitute or pay the government a \$300 commutation fee to avoid service. Conscription provoked the New York Draft Riots (July 13-16, 1863). Of the 2,100,000 Union soldiers, about 2% were conscripts, and about 6% were paid substitutes. Confederate conscripts accounted for 25% to 33% of the army's forces between April 1864 and early 1865. The variance in the draftees was indicative of how the war was progressing. Both sides used the draft to stimulate voluntary enlistment. The Union assigned the counties to enroll the names of eligible men.

When the Union Army finally inducted blacks, the military issued them inferior weapons. The whites regularly used the black forces as slave labor and referred to them as "damned niggers." They received harsher punishments than the white soldiers did for the same infractions. They comprised about 10% of the total number of troops but received about 80% of the court Martials and executions. The military summarily executed many of the blacks without the formality of a trial.<sup>[1398]</sup> For an army that was supposedly fighting for the freedom of the blacks, the Union soldiers committed numerous acts of plunder, rape and other brutalities against the blacks.

Slaves were regularly "captured" and conscripted into the Union Army where they used them as cannon fodder. These individuals did not enlist; the Union seized them against their will. On September 1, 1864, General Benjamin Butler received a report from General Innis N. Palmer, a West Point graduate, regarding the challenges he was having getting the blacks to help in their fight for liberation – "The negroes will not go voluntarily, so I am obliged to force them...The matter of collecting the colored men for laborers has been one of some difficulty but I hope to send up a respectable force...They will not go

willingly...They must be forced to go...This may be considered a harsh measure, but...we must not stop at trifles.” Fighting or laboring against one’s will constitutes slavery. However, to the North, it was “trifles.” War Secretary Stanton was very aware of the conscription of black slaves into the Union Army. Some of these conscripts were as young as fourteen years of age. The Union forces hunted and seized blacks from the fields where they were working. They placed their captives into regiments without the knowledge of their families.<sup>[1399]</sup>

About 70% to 80% of the non-slave owning Confederate soldiers would not have fought to preserve slavery. Most Southerners fervently believed that the more militarized, numerically superior North did not have a Constitutional right to liberate slaves who they considered the legitimate property of others in the sovereign states. The Constitution protected slavery even after the government prohibited slave trade. Many Southerners favored gradual, organized emancipation in order to allow the stabilization of the economy and the assimilation of the slaves while adjusting from a slave economy and integrating paid labor. The South had already stopped purchasing slaves while hypocritical Northerners, who had initiated the slave trade in the mid-1600s, continued to seize and sell Africans.

In the North, white residents segregated the “free” blacks in every aspect of their lives. Additionally, they literally had no right to defend themselves or to earn a living. They could not travel on the same railway cars, stagecoaches or steamboats. They could not enter hotels or restaurants except as servants. The whites emphatically denied the blacks social equality, as they were educated in their own schools, prayed in their own churches, received care in their own hospitals, and when they committed a crime, the authorities incarcerated them in their own prisons. Black codes, often a part of amended state constitutions, prevailed in every northern state. These codes extracted heavy fines from blacks and mulattoes who even entered any state that prohibited their residency. Blacks could not enter into a contract, vote or legally marry a white person if they were even one-eighth black. Interracial marriage carried a fine of as much as \$5,000 and ten years’ imprisonment. Blacks could not testify against whites in court and could not hold a political office. These discriminatory codes and laws, publicized by the press, prevented blacks from receiving the protection of the law and made them highly vulnerable to a multitude of abuses at the hands of the whites. Ohio, the site of so much abolitionist activism, prohibited, by armed force if necessary, the resettlement of emancipated slaves from the South.<sup>[1400]</sup>

Mildred Lewis Rutherford (1852-1928), a Georgia educator, was the historian of the United Daughters of the Confederacy. In her recently reprinted book, *Truths of History*, she wrote, “Confederate General Lee freed his slaves while Union General Grant maintained his slaves. In the Confederate Army there were 200,000 slaveholders while in the Union Army, there were 315,000 slaveholders.”<sup>[1401]</sup> In most major battles, Confederate non-slave holding soldiers were fighting against Union officers and soldiers who had not been required to relinquish their slaves. This is certainly hypocritical duplicity perpetrated by the “great emancipator.”<sup>[1402]</sup>

## **Lincoln, Marx and Emancipation**

Emancipation is an ambiguous double-edged sword. In order to equalize all citizens to the lowest possible level, it is essential to guarantee basic freedoms to everyone. Motivation gives name to any action – calling for the freedom of a particular ethnic group, if motivated by compassion, is a moral act of genuine benevolence. Calling for their emancipation in order to regulate and subjugate the entire population is an act of tyranny. Lincoln, in the final Lincoln-Douglas debate, said, “I will say then that I am not, nor ever have been in favor of bringing about in any way the social and political equality of the white and black races.”<sup>[1403]</sup>

Attorney James Alexander Hamilton, the son of Federalist Alexander Hamilton, was the U.S. attorney for

the Southern District of New York in 1860, a position he had held for thirty years. He was president of an emancipation group at the Cooper Union for the Advancement of Science and Art, known simply as Cooper Union, founded in 1859 in downtown Manhattan, the site of Lincoln's speech on February 27, 1860 before the delegates selected him as the Republican candidate.<sup>[1404]</sup> In late 1859, New York's elite invited Lincoln to speak to them; the speech made him an overnight political star. Hamilton, a strong Lincoln supporter, early in the war began urging the emancipation of the slaves, a consistent Illuminati maneuver. Hamilton, a member of the Philolexian Society, frequently advised Lincoln's Treasury Secretary Salmon P. Chase, a Freemason, on federal financial matters.<sup>[1405]</sup>

The Washington Lecture Association arranged a series of lectures, from December 1861 to April 1862, at the Smithsonian lecture hall. On January 3, 1862, with Lincoln, Salmon P. Chase, and ten Republican congressmen on the platform, Horace Greeley, editor of the *New York Tribune* presented the lecture, *The Nation* wherein he advocated emancipation of the slaves and the "vigorous prosecution of the war."<sup>[1406]</sup> Lincoln later met with each of the speakers privately – George B. Cheever, a New York Congregational minister; Ralph Waldo Emerson, American philosopher; and Wendell Phillips, a Boston lawyer. Some of the speakers apparently persuaded him to view emancipation as a viable war issue.<sup>[1407]</sup> Emerson, a Transcendentalist, regularly contributed articles to *The Dial: A Magazine for Literature, Philosophy, and Religion*, a magazine promoting the Transcendentalist ideology.<sup>[1408]</sup> He was, according to Oliver Wendell Holmes, the greatest inspiration to the movement. Holmes wrote, "So far as his own relation to the circle of illuminati ... lies himself (Emerson) is the best witness."<sup>[1409]</sup> Dr. Holmes, part of the literary elite and a contributor to *The Atlantic Monthly*, belonged to Boston's Saturday Club, where, once a month, the illuminati met.<sup>[1410]</sup> Dr. Holmes was the father of Oliver Wendell Holmes Jr., the U.S. Supreme Court Justice who issued the sterilization verdict in the case of Carrie Buck in 1927.

A week after Greeley's lecture, Reverend George B. Cheever spoke on the *Justice and Necessity of Immediate Military Emancipation*. He complained that the "crushing of the rebellion has been promised, but is not yet seriously undertaken." Further, he stressed, "It will never be accomplished till we strike Slavery to the heart."<sup>[1411]</sup> Wendell Phillips said the war "is primarily a social revolution... . The war can only be ended by annihilating that Oligarchy which formed and rules the South and makes the war, by annihilating a state of society...The whole social system of the Gulf States must be taken to pieces."<sup>[1412]</sup>

On January 31, 1862, Emerson rebuked Lincoln and his administration for its "half-hearted prosecution of the war." Emerson argued that if they fought the war on high moral principles, it would repair a deeper wound than it created. The Smithsonian lectures were instrumental in convincing Lincoln to issue the Emancipation Proclamation and fight a total war against the Confederate army and the Southern noncombatants.<sup>[1413]</sup> Emerson had previously remarked about the "inferior" race, which would "follow the Dodo into extinction."<sup>[1414]</sup> New Englanders, many of whom were Unitarian or Calvinist, viewed themselves as "God's Chosen People." Therefore, they did not want "inferior people" mingling among them.

On January 27, 1862, Karl Marx, in a meeting at the Saint Martin's Hall in London, merged several left wing groups into what would later become the International Workingmen's Association. He urged the workers to vigorously oppose their government's intentions of intervening in the American Civil War on the Confederate side. James Murray Mason and John Slidell were in London at the time seeking financial support for the Confederacy. The purpose of Marx's meeting was to create mass opposition, according to the newspaper, to "those slaveholders from the rebel states of America." The attendees unanimously concluded that those two agents were "utterly unworthy of the moral sympathies of the working classes" of Britain. The radicals in Britain portrayed Mason and Slidell as agents of a tyrannical rebellious faction against the American republic making them "sworn enemies against the social and political rights of the

working classes of all countries.” They voted that “it is the duty of the working men to express their sympathies with the United States in their gigantic struggle for the preservation of the Union.”<sup>[1415]</sup>

On February 2, 1862, news of the meeting at Newhall appeared in *Die Presse* of Vienna, “A London Workers’ Meeting,” written by Marx, the first in his series covering the British working class and their thoughts about the American Civil War. Marx pointed out that the British working class, despite their vast numbers, no one represented them in Parliament but they were not “without political influence.” They could exert force by external pressure through massive demonstrations. By inciting outrage, “pressure from without,” the working class could provoke important legislation. Previously, the *British ruling class* had effectively manipulated the working class, though unrepresented, to pass unpopular policies in the interests of certain parties.<sup>[1416]</sup>

The Union Naval blockade had stopped the majority of cotton from getting to the British textile mills resulting in work stoppages and shorter hours, which produced “incredible misery among the workers in the northern manufacturing districts and was growing worse daily.”<sup>[1417]</sup> Marx was so charismatic and manipulative that he could inspire the most desperate people to make personal sacrifices for what they supposed were moral principles. Marx, always promoting a violent Proletarian Revolution, shifted the circumstances and issues, manipulated, and exploited the workingman to support the revolution in America. He apparently had little regard for the starving textile workers.

Between 1861 and 1865, Richard Cobden, siding with Marx, and other radical British manufacturers, fearing that the outcome of America’s war might jeopardize the elite status quo in England, propagandized the Lancashire workingmen, who then voted to sacrifice their wages in support of the North. The stories spread to top U.S. politicians who wanted a guarantee that the starving British workers actually rejected, of their own free will, the opening of the blockade that Lincoln had imposed on April 19, 1861. William E. Gladstone, who once supported Jefferson Davis, used the story of the suffering workpeople to withhold support to the South.<sup>[1418]</sup>

Marx, in his regular dispatches to the *Tribune*, characterized the British textile workers as self-sacrificing and heroic, for despite the grievous hardships resulting from the cotton blockade, they were willing, as their sacrifices prevented England’s ruling class from supporting the Confederacy. Americans accepted the notion that ultimately, Britain’s wealthy elite compensated the British workers for their sacrifices in support of the Union.<sup>[1419]</sup> Of course, the wealthy had sufficient resources to live quite comfortably, despite the fact that their factories were not manufacturing clothing from the southern cotton.

Marx characterized the South as having secretly planned a war for years and portrayed Jefferson Davis as a Southern dictator. Marx said the Confederate Constitution recognized slavery as a “good thing” as opposed to the Constitution of the founders. He claimed that Southern slaveholders controlled the Supreme Court, referring to the controversial Dred Scott decision.<sup>[1420]</sup> Rothschild’s European plan of labor, as cited in the *Hazard Circular*, was incompatible with slavery. The wealthy bankers could control and manipulate wage slaves, people who were dependent on the elite who owned the factories. There was a huge influx of cheap labor from Europe making slavery economically burdensome. It would have ended without compulsion, simply by economic necessity.<sup>[1421]</sup> It was more expensive to take care of all of the daily needs of the slaves – housing, food, clothing, and medical care than to hire laborers for a wage. When slaves became elderly and could no longer labor, their owners took care of them in their old age. Factory owners simply replaced aged employees who were no longer able to work.

On September 7, 1862, Socialist Robert Dale Owen, Congressman from Indiana, wrote to Lincoln urging the immediate emancipation of the slaves. On September 22, 1862, Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, which took effect January 1, 1863. Owen’s letter was reportedly one of the crucial factors in his decision. Owen is the same politician who drafted the act establishing the Smithsonian Institution.

As a previous member of the Indiana Constitutional Convention, he was instrumental in the enactment of the liberal provisions for woman's rights and he introduced the free public education system in Indiana.<sup>[1422]</sup> Secretary Chase, with his own agenda, added the final clauses to the Emancipation Proclamation.<sup>[1423]</sup>

Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation freeing the slaves in the South on September 22, 1862, claiming it his right as the Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy. This was not an act of Congress but rather a presidential Executive Order, enforceable by law.<sup>[1424]</sup> The proclamation did not free any slaves within the Union. The legislation only freed slaves in a country in which Lincoln had no authority and did not apply to the people enslaved under his legal jurisdiction.<sup>[1425]</sup> Nor did it include freedom for the slaves within the states that the Union had already taken control of – six parishes within Louisiana. General Grant did not free his slaves by January 1, 1863. It required the 13th Amendment, December 6, 1865, for him to free his slaves.<sup>[1426]</sup> Slave owners in Delaware, Kentucky, Maryland and Missouri, loyal to the Union, were allowed to keep their slaves. The Confederates were aware that the Emancipation Proclamation did not apply to northern slaves.<sup>[1427]</sup>

Three Russian historians discovered several letters from Karl Marx published in the *Vienna Presse*, for which Marx was a correspondent during the Civil War. The original appeared in *Die Presse* on October 12, 1862, shortly after the Emancipation Proclamation. Marx said, "Lincoln is a figure sui generis in the annals of history...He always gives the most significant of his acts the most commonplace form...And this is the character the recent Proclamation bears, the most important document of American history since the founding of the Union, a document that breaks away from the old American Constitution, Lincoln's manifesto on the abolition of slavery...In the history of the United States and in the history of humanity, Lincoln occupies a place beside Washington...everything of significance taking shape in the New World makes its appearance in such everyday form...The ordinary play of the electoral system bore him to its summit...a man without intellectual brilliance, without special strength of character...Never yet has the New World scored a greater victory than in this instance, through its demonstration that, thanks to its political and social organization, ordinary people of good will can carry out tasks which the Old World would have to have a hero to accomplish!"<sup>[1428]</sup>

Jefferson Davis said the proclamation was the "most execrable measure of a guilty man." It promised freedom only to slaves living in regions unoccupied by the Federal armies. Slaves in the Border States, Maryland, Missouri and Tennessee, remained in bondage. The *London Spectator* reported, "The principle asserted is not that a human being cannot justly own another, but that he cannot own him unless he is loyal to the United States."<sup>[1429]</sup> Marx was overjoyed with Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation. He then exclaimed, "Never has such a gigantic transformation taken place so rapidly." Because of this liberation, "a new and vigorous life" would emerge.<sup>[1430]</sup> The Springfield, Massachusetts *Republican*, a wartime newspaper, envisioned that Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation would produce "the greatest social and political revolution of the age."<sup>[1431]</sup>

On December 1, 1862, Lincoln proposed three constitutional amendments that called for compensated emancipation and colonization, a benign word for deportation.<sup>[1432]</sup> Lincoln, who believed in white supremacy and apartheid, sought to colonize or exile the blacks to West Africa, the Caribbean or Central America, Henry Clay's solution for the black problem. Lincoln did not believe in the "fundamental equality" of the races or general assimilation into the population.<sup>[1433]</sup>

The proclamation was a political ploy; either obey or risk military action. Lincoln admitted the proclamation was a military measure and was not a humanitarian gesture.<sup>[1434]</sup> The troops did not actively support Emancipation but they were motivated by their passionate determination to save the Union rather than the hatred of slavery. The radical abolitionists and Republicans promoted emancipation. The *New York Tribune* advocated emancipation, a moral rather than a practical measure. The Union army did not

have a sufficient foothold in the South to enforce the policy.<sup>[1435]</sup>

Lincoln's Message to Congress on December 8, 1863 called for a Constitutional amendment to ban slavery. He offered lenient terms for the readmission of some of the former "rebellious" states. Most of the Republicans thought he was far too lenient. The Democrats objected to Lincoln making slavery and emancipation a war issue.<sup>[1436]</sup> The media mythmakers portrayed the Northerners, especially after the proclamation, as morally superior and the Southerners as treasonous villains and concealed the North's real reason for their aggression. Contemporary warmongers utilize the same moralistic phrases against current "evil-doers."

Marx repeatedly credited British workers as being responsible for Britain avoiding involvement in the war. In November 1864, he wrote to co-conspirator Joseph Weydemeyer, a Union military strategist and referred to the "labor kings of London" who had "prevented Lord Palmerston from declaring war upon the United States" because of the protest meeting in St. James' Hall. Later, he wrote that it was the heroic opposition of the working classes in Lancashire, who absolutely refused to permit the Confederate sympathizers to exploit their abject sufferings.<sup>[1437]</sup>

The International Workingmen's Association sent Lincoln a congratulatory message when the voters reelected him in 1864. Marx drafted the message to the "son of the working class" because of his "noble struggle to emancipate an enslaved race."<sup>[1438]</sup> Marx maintained that white labor was incapable of emancipating itself as long as slavery was constitutionally legal in the U.S.<sup>[1439]</sup> In February 1865, Charles Francis Adams, the U.S. Ambassador to Britain told Marx that his comments "are accepted by him (Lincoln) with a sincere and anxious desire that he may be able to prove himself not unworthy of the confidence which has been recently extended to him by his fellow-citizens, and by so many of the friends of humanity and progress throughout the world."<sup>[1440]</sup>

Lincoln was encouraged by foreign immigration. Some 615,000 men, women and children had arrived during the war whom he regarded as "one of the principal replenishing stream which are appointed by Providence to repair the ravages of internal war."<sup>[1441]</sup> Lincoln assigned guilt and stipulated the requirements for peace, "In stating a single condition of peace, I mean simply to say that the war will cease on the part of the government whenever it shall have ceased on the part of those who began it."<sup>[1442]</sup> The Northerners accepted the propaganda then and the media and government currently persuade the majority of Americans to accept it now.

Marx and Engels exchanged at least sixty-one letters between them regarding the war. They actually functioned as propaganda agents for the Union cause in Europe through their articles in several European newspapers.<sup>[1443]</sup> The European radicals who remained in Europe saw the war in America as a revolution. Marx described the war as a "world transforming ... revolutionary movement."

Marx was an Illuminist. Author Terry Melanson, expert on the Illuminati wrote, "A direct doctrinal link is detectable from Rousseau (Weishaupt and the Illuminati) to Robespierre to Buonarroti/Babeuf to Blanqui to Marx."<sup>[1444]</sup> Marx and Engels designed the Communist Manifesto to create a super-State based on international slave labor and the destruction of liberty. The Illuminati leadership changed after the publication of the Manifesto, which determined the course for the twentieth century. Illuminism, a centuries-old force unleashed by Weishaupt, became Communism. However, the strategy for the destruction of the existing order remained unchanged from the tactics revealed by Weishaupt's papers. The Bavarian government seized his documents in 1787 and forced the movement underground until 1848. The original Illuminist plan has been static in every revolution. The dupes or initiates of the outer circle believe they are engaged in something noble, which promises independence and unity in their country. Those in the higher degrees gradually learn the real objectives of the order – and may even participate in the destruction of society, religion and legitimate government. They then intend to replace people's

religious feelings with the deification of the State, communal ownership of land and capital and abolition of private property.<sup>[1445]</sup>

The word Illuminati is the plural of Illuminatus, Latin for the one who is illuminated.<sup>[1446]</sup> Lucifer's name denotes that he was the "holder of the light." An Illuminati symbol is a lighted torch to signify Lucifer.

Frederic A. Bartholdi, a Freemason and an established sculptor residing in Paris, began his monumental work after the successful culmination of America's Bolshevik revolution. His colossal work, "lady of liberty," or *holder of the light* took two decades to complete. Its name is actually *Liberty Enlightening the World*. People conceived the idea for the statue at a dinner party at Glatigny, a country estate near Versailles in 1865. This was possibly a majestic celebratory gift to memorialize the great socialistic achievement of infiltrating and instituting a powerful central government in the U.S., which would then direct the tyrannization of the rest of the world.

On October 14, 1875, Bartholdi was a member of the Lodge Alsace-Lorraine, Paris. Membership in that lodge consisted of leading intellectuals, government officials and authors. On June 19, 1884, prior to the unveiling of the statue to the U.S. delegation, Bartholdi gathered his lodge members and they "marched in procession" to review the statue. On November 13, 1884, he presented a lecture to his lodge covering the history and diverse methods he used in building it. On August 5, 1884, 33rd degree Mason, William A. Brodie, Grand Master of the Grand Lodge of New York, laid the foundation stone for the Statue of Liberty holding the Masonic torch of Enlightenment in New York harbor.<sup>[1447]</sup>

Lincoln repeatedly said that the right of revolution, the "right of any people" is to "throw off, to revolutionize, their existing form of government, and to establish such other in its stead as they may choose" was "a sacred right, a right, which we may hope and believe, is to liberate the world." The Declaration of Independence, he insisted often, was the great "charter of freedom" and in the example of the American Revolution, "the world has found...the germ...to grow and expand into the universal liberty of mankind." Lincoln championed the leaders of the European revolutions of 1848 and Karl Marx praised Lincoln in 1865 as "the single-minded son of the working class" who had led his "country through the matchless struggle for the rescue of an enchained race and the reconstruction of a social world."<sup>[1448]</sup>

Lincoln repeatedly, through the years, clarified his beliefs in the inferiority of the blacks versus the superiority of the whites. The emancipation and the war was not about equality for the blacks, a group that Lincoln thought should be deported. However, they were useful for the socialist propaganda machine. Both Marx and Lincoln, in their public speeches, used the blacks or the poor to further another agenda. The war was really all about a successful Marxist revolution.

## **Lincoln, the Machiavellian Dictator**



Brian Danoff wrote, "Some see Lincoln as a virtual dictator, others as an icon of democracy; some see him as a revolutionary, others as a conservative; some as a civic humanist, others as a kind of Christian theologian. What then are we to make of these disparate interpretations of Lincoln and Machiavelli? First of all, we should notice that the debate about Machiavelli to a large extent parallels the debate about Lincoln. Like Machiavelli, Lincoln has been construed as both a cynical pragmatist and as a lover of

liberty. And like Machiavelli, Lincoln has been associated with republican government, on one hand, and with authoritarian government, on the other. Lincoln can legitimately be called Machiavellian, then, in part because we find in Lincoln the same paradoxical combinations that we find in Machiavelli.”<sup>[1449]</sup>

On April 15, 1861, Lincoln, through an Executive Proclamation, called for an aggregate number of 75,000 from the northern states to put down a rebellion. He invaded the South without a Congressional Declaration of War. On April 19 and 27, he imposed an unconstitutional blockade on the ports of the seceded states. This was wholly unacceptable to the law of nations except when governments are embroiled in war. On April 20, he ordered an additional nineteen vessels for the Navy for defense purposes. On May 3, he asked 42,034 volunteers to serve for a period of three years and sought to enlarge the regular army by 23,000 and the navy by 18,000, an invasion of legislative powers.

With the blockade on the southern seaports, ships and cargoes belonging to private parties could be confiscated and retained. On July 13, 1861, Congress convened, and approved of all seizures that had already taken place, all acts, proclamations and presidential orders that had previously occurred – the war, the embargo, and the plundering of private property.<sup>[1450]</sup>

On April 20, Lincoln asked Treasury Secretary Chase to advance him \$2 million of unappropriated funds to give to three private New York citizens to be used by them for certain military requisitions and naval measures as needed for defense and support. He declared martial law, suspended the writ of habeas corpus, and imprisoned his political opponents and anti-war protestors and journalists – all without a legal trial. He discontinued mail service, the method of distribution, for anti-war newspapers. He shut down twenty-one newspapers for speaking out against his policies. He nationalized the railroads and censored all telegraph communications. He incarcerated some Maryland legislators who he suspected might vote to secede from the Union. He imposed military conscription. During the war, his administration imprisoned at least 14,000 civilians.<sup>[1451]</sup>

On May 10, 1861, by public proclamation, Lincoln suspended habeas corpus in Florida, a Confederate state. Then in an order to General Scott, dated June 20, 1861, he suspended habeas corpus “at any point where resistance occurs” through military officers in command between Washington and New York City.<sup>[1452]</sup> On April 27, 1861, he suspended habeas corpus in Maryland and in parts of some Midwestern states. He believed that the Southerners who seceded had relinquished all civil liberties. His dictatorial administration instigated military trials in Missouri that the U.S. Supreme Court condemned. Union authorities arrested and tried countless citizens of Missouri in these courts.<sup>[1453]</sup>

In 1867, Lysander Spooner wrote, “The principle, on which the war was waged by the North, was simply this: That men may rightfully be compelled to submit to, and support, a government that they do not want; and that resistance, on their part, makes them traitors and criminals.”<sup>[1454]</sup>

In August 1861, Lincoln, a micro manager, appointed Thomas A. Scott, then Pennsylvania Railroad president as the Assistant Secretary of War (1861-1863), due to his knowledge of railroads. Scott and War Secretary Simon Cameron, a Freemason, were friends prior to the war and invariably collaborated during the war. Congress authorized Lincoln to seize all commercial telegraph systems. Companies accordingly placed their personnel and resources at the Union’s disposal. Scott hired Andrew Carnegie, his former employee, as his assistant in the War Department. Carnegie organized the Military Telegraph Corps and helped build a critical communications network for the Union.<sup>[1455]</sup> Cameron directed all telegraph operations and would not allow his generals to interfere with their cipher-operators.<sup>[1456]</sup> Lincoln, who spent a lot of time in the telegraph room, authored the first draft of the Emancipation Proclamation there. The Union intercepted and decoded Confederate cipher messages and frequently tapped their wires during Sherman’s march to the sea.<sup>[1457]</sup>

Lincoln appointed John George Nicolay as his private secretary. Nicolay persuaded Lincoln to hire John Hay as part of his personal staff. In Springfield, Hay, an attorney, had worked next door to Lincoln’s office. Ironically, during another invasive war, Hay was President McKinley’s Secretary of State (1898-1905). He referred to the Spanish American War as a “splendid little war.” Certainly, the Filipinos did not view the destabilization and destruction within their country in the same way. Nicolay and Hay lived in the White House and were constantly on call. In 1881, Nicolay, a former journalist, wrote *The Outbreak of the Rebellion*. Nicolay and Hay collaborated on Lincoln’s official life story, which appeared in *The Century Magazine* from 1886 to 1890. Later it was printed as a ten volume set. They also wrote the *Complete Works of Abraham Lincoln*. Later these cover-up artists edited *Lincoln’s Works*, a twelve-volume compilation. These works concealed and amended rather than divulged actual history.

Lincoln apparently viewed the Constitution as prohibitive to his political aspirations. Clement Laird Vallandigham, U.S. Representative from Ohio (1858-1863) supported states' rights. General Ambrose Burnside issued Order #38 regarding dissenters. Officers arrested Vallandigham for speaking against the war on May 1, 1863, and brought before a military commission and condemned to confinement for the remainder of the war. Lincoln heard of Vallandigham's arrest but saw no alternatives to Burnside's actions.<sup>[1458]</sup>

Vallandigham wrote a letter to the editor of the *Cincinnati Enquirer* and sent copies to a dozen Democratic journals, including the *Dayton Empire* and the *Crisis*. He blamed Lincoln for what he called a coercive war. He deplored "the surging sea of madness" wherein Americans were "butchered each other."<sup>[1459]</sup> Arrests were most frequent in states under military authority. Vallandigham, branded as a traitor, reviled Lincoln for suspending habeas corpus without Congressional sanction.<sup>[1460]</sup>

On April 4, 1864, Lincoln said, "I did understand, however, that my oath to preserve the Constitution to the best of my ability imposed upon me the duty of preserving, by every indispensable means, that government, that nation, of which that Constitution was the organic law... I felt that measures, otherwise unconstitutional, might become lawful, by becoming indispensable to the preservation of the Constitution, through the preservation of the nation."<sup>[1461]</sup>

The Union engaged in plundering. The Louisiana sugar planters supported the Confederacy, and accepted a leading role in the secessionist movement and sent delegates to the convention. Most Southerners, including the sugar planters, thought the slaves would continue to labor, the young would fight the war and England and France would finance the battle. The 1861 and 1862 crops were abundant but with falling sugar prices, they were unable to market their 1862 crop. The Confederates in New Orleans surrendered and the Union occupied the city on May 1, 1862. Some plantations owners and their families fled leaving their homes vulnerable to plunder by squatters, Confederate deserters, runaway slaves and Northern troops and their remaining sugar cane to rot. Others stayed but were still subject to pillaging.<sup>[1462]</sup>

If the owners abandoned their plantation, it immediately became subject to federal confiscation and the national government could sell or lease it for nonpayment of taxes. Blacks opposed such policies – they equated ownership of land with freedom. They had worked the land all of their lives and they felt that it was theirs by right. Ex-slaves had no voice and no rights. Prior to January 1, 1863, the effective date of the Emancipation Proclamation, plantation owners kept their land and their slaves by simply renouncing their Confederate loyalties when Union troops occupied the area in question.<sup>[1463]</sup>

Federal authorities seized large properties, especially the estates of those who had played a primary part in the secession movement or acted as official Confederate officers, like Judah P. Benjamin, the Confederate Secretary of State. Braxton Bragg and Richard Taylor, both Confederate army generals, lost their properties. Many planters retained their property by taking an oath of allegiance to the federal government. The war disrupted the entire labor force. Slaves who left their familiar surroundings were unable, in most cases, to take care of themselves now that they were free.<sup>[1464]</sup>

Lincoln, like other presidents since, always justified his actions based on necessity, akin to the contemporary claim of "national security." He said, "Necessity knows no law" in referring to his actions during the war. To restore the American republic, to implement "a new birth of freedom," he justified seizing power. He once told his audience that they must worship the laws of the republic, "Let every American...swear by the blood of the Revolution never to violate in the least particular the laws of the country, and never to tolerate their violation by others...Let every man remember that to violate the law is to trample on the blood of his father, and to tear the charter of his own and his children's liberty. Let reverence for the laws...become the political religion of the nation."<sup>[1465]</sup>

At the end of the war, people discovered the truth about the events at Fort Sumter. By then, of course, it was too late. The Union had destroyed the South, both physically and culturally, along with constitutional government. Lincoln's principal objective during the war was to maintain and then strengthen the unified republic, or as Machiavelli uttered, *mantanere lo stato*. His goal paralleled Machiavelli's emphasis on maintaining the state, whatever the cost, in other people's liberty, blood and property. <sup>[1466]</sup>

## **Socialist Revolutionaries in the Union Army**

For the average Southerner, the war was about liberty, states' rights and resisting an invasion by the North. The elite, using the media, had stoked the average Northerner with propaganda while numerous vociferous, socialistic ministers who should have been the first anti-war protestors, promoted the war. The northerners thought they were fighting evildoers. For some Yankees, it was about empire, confiscating southern property for pennies on the dollar, maintaining their financial investments, and imposing a centralized government to appropriate control over everyone's lives, the foundational ideology of Marxist Socialists.

*The Communist Manifesto*, declared, "A specter is wandering over Europe today, the specter of communism." The manifesto was timely. Revolts erupted throughout Europe a short time later. Some people in the U.S. heard about the 1848-49 German revolution and, not understanding the motives of the participants, viewed it as an attempt to depose tyranny as the patriots had done in 1776. <sup>[1467]</sup>

Communists, Socialists and Marxists who had immigrated to America from failed revolutions in Europe fought on the side of the Union during Lincoln's War. Fritz Anneke was the chief of artillery under General John A. McClernand. Louis Blenker claimed he could raise an army of thousands of German troops for the national government who had participated in the wars in Europe. It appears that Blenker was not interested in defending the constitution and individual liberties. Rather, he was just interested in defending the Union. <sup>[1468]</sup>

German, Hungarian and Polish revolutionary refugees immigrated to the U.S. at different times during the late 1840s and into the late 1850s, still promoting their socialist objectives and ideologies. They found commonality with the Republican Party and Lincoln and quickly enlisted when he asked for volunteers. General Franz Sigel even designed the uniforms for his Third Regiment of Missouri to look like those of the German revolutionaries in 1848. <sup>[1469]</sup>

Many of the foreign-born Union Army generals saw military action in their native countries during the revolutions in several European countries, especially in Germany. The following were German-born unless noted – Ludwig (Louis) Blenker; August Kautz; Julius H. Stahel-Számwald (Hungary); Włodzimierz Krzyżanowski (Polish); Karl Leopold Matthies; Peter J. Osterhaus; Frederick C. Salomon; Alexander Schimmelfennig; Albin Francisco Schoepf (Poland); Carl Schurz; Franz Sigel; Ivan Turchaninov (Russia); Adolph von Steinwehr; August Willich; and Godfrey Weitzel. Osterhaus assisted General William T. Sherman in his March to the Sea. They each held top-level positions in the Union. There were few foreign-born generals in the Confederate Army. One remarkable Confederate officer was Johann August Heinrich Heros von Borcke who arrived in Charleston on a Confederate blockade-runner in May 1862. He made his way to Richmond, joined the Confederate Army, and became a captain on June 1, 1862. His superiors assigned him to J. E. B. Stuart who quickly recognized his military skill, made him an aide and the two became close friends. Following the end of the bloody war, von Borcke returned to Prussia where he resumed his military career.

Not all of the former European revolutionaries served as Union generals. Many served as officers including Lt. Colonel Carl Gottfried Freudenberg, Lt. Colonel Ernest Fahtz, Dr. Friedrich Hecker, Col. George von Amsberg, Colonel Adolf Dengler, Colonels Joseph Gerhardt, Carl Eberhard Salomon,

Wilhelm Heine, Konrad Krez, Henry Flad, Fritz Anneke, Franz Mahler, Adolf von Hartung, Edward Kapff, August Mersey, Friedrich Poschner, Franz Wutschel, Rudolf von Rosa, Joseph Weydemeyer and others. All of them were socialists. There were at least fifty German-born majors. Most of these officers came from the Midwestern states of Ohio, Illinois, Missouri, Iowa, and Wisconsin.

In 1860, there were approximately 1,204,075 Germans within the states that remained in the Union. During the war, approximately 100,000 additional Germans entered, making about 1,300,000 Germans living in the Union. About 118,402 would have been subject to military service. According to estimates, around 216,000 actually served which means that Germans were over-represented by nearly 100,000 men. Of the total, at least 36,000 served under German officers. If there were 216,000 German troops and we accept that the total of all foreign-born troops was nearly 500,000, about 25% of all Union troops, then as many as one in every four Union troops was apt to be a German. This is an astonishing statistic, and bears out the widely held Confederate belief that they were fighting an army of Hessians.

The preponderance of German-born officers and volunteers actually employed Hessian rules of war. Dr. Franz (Francis) Lieber, a native of Berlin, and Columbia University law professor drafted the *Instructions for the Government of Armies of the United States in the Field*, General Order #100, also known as Lieber Code, dated April 24, 1863. President Lincoln signed papers sanctioning these instructions, which dictated how soldiers should behave during wartime. E. D. Townsend, the Secretary of War sanctioned the order.<sup>[1470]</sup> He designed the code to accommodate a reciprocal relationship between the occupied civilian population and the Army. If the population resisted military authority, by taking up arms, engaging in or supporting guerrilla activities then they could have fines imposed, have property confiscated or destroyed, face imprisonment and/or expulsion, face mass relocations, be taken as a hostage, or be immediately executed. Additionally, the code authorized the shooting on sight of all persons not in uniform but functioning as soldiers and those committing, or attempting to commit, sabotage. This is obviously an open-ended authorization to perpetuate war crimes against any civilian population and the government has justified the code in every U.S. military activity since its inception.

Joseph Weydemeyer, a former a member of the Communist League in Germany, was a colonel in the Union Army.<sup>[1471]</sup> As a socialist, he advocated the congressional passage of a Homestead Law whereby individuals could acquire public lands. Because of his surveying experience as a Prussian military officer, he joined General John C. Frémont's staff as a technical aide. Frémont, very popular with the Forty-Eighters, was the commander of the Department of the West. Weydemeyer supervised the construction of ten forts in the St. Louis area. When Frémont left that position in November 1861, Weydemeyer was elevated to a lieutenant colonel, and commanded the Missouri Volunteer Artillery regiment and led the assault against Confederate guerilla activity in southern Missouri in 1862.

After the Communist League dissolved, August von Willich arrived in America where he was a Union general.<sup>[1472]</sup> On September 10, 1862, Marx wrote to Engels informing him that Willich, a former Prussian Army officer, was a Major General in the Union Army.<sup>[1473]</sup> Willich, a future brigadier of the Ninth Ohio and the 32nd Indiana was an ardent follower of Karl Marx. People knew him for his regimental drills even after 20-mile marches and often lectured his men on the virtues of communism. He was one of the Ohio Hegelians, followers and advocates of the ideas of philosopher Georg Wilhelm Friedrich Hegel.

Julius Stahel, born in Hungary on November 5, 1825, fought in the Hungarian Revolution under Louis Kossuth in 1848 then came to the U.S. in 1856. He fought on the Union side in the war and saw action at Bull Run. He was with General Frémont's army in the Shenandoah Valley. Lincoln sent for him on March 13, 1863 and assigned him to serve in Washington. In 1884, Lincoln appointed him as consul at Yokohama, Japan and at Shanghai, China. He was awarded a Medal of Honor on November 4, 1893, for leading his division after he was severely wounded. He was a member of the Pilgrims Society in 1903.<sup>[1474]</sup>

Edward S. Salomon came to the U.S. when he was seventeen, settled in Chicago and became a lawyer. When war erupted, he enlisted and became a captain in the Eighty-second Illinois, the regiment that participated with Sherman in the notorious march from Atlanta to the sea. President Grant later awarded him with the governorship of Washington Territory.<sup>[1475]</sup>

Alexander von Schimmelfennig fled to Switzerland and then immigrated to the U.S. in 1854. He became a Brigadier General in the Union Army and commanded the District of Charleston, while Sherman was making his infamous March to the Sea. Max von Weber (1824-1901) enlisted in May 1861, raised an entire German regiment known as the Turner Rifles and ultimately became a Brigadier General. He participated in the slaughter at the Battle of Antietam, the bloodiest day in American history. Union losses totaled 12,401 men – 2,108 dead and 9,540 wounded and 753 missing. Confederate losses totaled 10,406 – 1,546 dead, 7,752 wounded and 1,108 missing. Following the war, Weber was U.S. Counsel in Nantes, France.

The enlisted Germans, most of who fought in the revolutionary armies in Europe in 1848 and 1849, were countless. Just in New York City alone, thousands of Germans volunteered right after Fort Sumter. The state of New York had ten regiments composed entirely of German immigrants. These regiments included the Steuben Rifles, Blenker's Eighth NY, the Astor Rifles, the German Rifles No. 5, the SchwarzeJager, and the German Rifles No. 3. Gen. In June 1861, General Winfield Scott and Lincoln reviewed Blenker's Regiment during which Scott referred to them as "the best regiment we now have."

On May 6, 1862, Marx wrote to Engels with the exciting news that their comrade, Carl Schurz, was now a Brigadier General in the Union army. After the war, the president appointed Schurz as the U.S. Secretary of the Interior (1877-1881).<sup>[1476]</sup>

## **Charles A. Dana, a Socialist in the War Department**

Charles A. Dana, though poor, attended Harvard University where Transcendentalists Ralph Waldo Emerson, George Ripley, Theodore Parker and others influenced him. In the winter of 1840, Ripley, a Unitarian minister and avid socialist, left his ministry and established Brook Farm, an experiment in cooperative socialism in West Roxbury, a Boston suburb. In 1841, Dana left Harvard and lived at Brook Farm from September 1841 until March 6, 1846, when a blazing fire destroyed it.<sup>[1477]</sup> Author George B. Lockwood wrote, "As Owenism was the forerunner of Fourierism, so New Harmony was the forerunner of Brook Farm."<sup>[1478]</sup>

Dana wanted to study in Germany, a humanistic haven, and then go into the ministry but poor health at the time altered his plans. While at Brook Farm, he helped edit, with George Ripley, *The Harbinger*, the voice of American Socialists, which also covered the political movements in Europe. The Brook Farm was a Unitarian, humanitarian and Socialistic experiment.<sup>[1479]</sup> *The Harbinger* published articles written by James Russell Lowell, John Greenleaf Whittier, Horace Greeley, George Ripley and Thomas Wentworth Higginson.

Late in 1846, Dana was in New York where he was preparing to start his new job, in February 1847, as the City editor for *The New York Tribune*, a Collectivist newspaper that Horace Greeley established. Dana had, for a time, also worked as an editor at the *New York Sun*. Prior to joining the *Tribune*; he was also on the staff of the *Chronotype*, a paper advocating social reforms, edited by Elizur Wright.<sup>[1480]</sup> Greeley, a Freemason who people suspected of being a member of the Illuminati,<sup>[1481]</sup> had earlier served as editor for a Whig campaign publication, *The Jeffersonian*. A year later, he edited the *Log Cabin*, which helped elect William Henry Harrison as president on the Whig ticket. In 1841, Greeley merged those papers into *The New York Tribune*. About five years before, Dana had met Greeley, a man who had political ambitions and who helped found the Republican Party. They may have met at Brook Farm where

Greeley was a frequent visitor.<sup>[1482]</sup>

*The New York Tribune* soon sent Dana to Europe to evaluate the revolutionary activities. He met Karl Marx in Cologne and found they had much in common. Both men were horribly disappointed when the revolution ended without the meeting their hoped-for objectives. Dana would not forget about the fiery revolution when he returned to America, nor did he forget Marx.<sup>[1483]</sup> Dana worked as a correspondent for *The Harbinger*, the *Chronotype*, the *Philadelphia American*, the *New York Commercial Advertiser* and *The New York Tribune* during his time in Europe. He corresponded with each paper once a week and reported on his evaluations of the political situation while he solidified his socialist leanings.<sup>[1484]</sup>

After Dana returned from Europe in March 1849, he became a shareholder and managing editor of *The Tribune*.<sup>[1485]</sup> He assembled a staff of writers – George Ripley, George William Curtis, and Margaret Fuller. *The Tribune* and its owners and shareholders played a major role in strengthening the Republican Party.<sup>[1486]</sup> In August 1851, Dana invited Karl Marx to become a *New York Tribune* correspondent, which delighted Marx, as he desperately needed the money to try to maintain his family and a housekeeper in their hovel in a London slum. Marx did not know English well enough to compile an article and initially relied on Friedrich Engels to write the articles under Marx's name. He soon learned English and used his rhetorical skills for a New World audience.<sup>[1487]</sup> Both Marx and Engels were European correspondents for *The Tribune* in the early 1850s.<sup>[1488]</sup>

On June 1, 1861, *The New York Tribune's* headlines read, “The Nation's war-cry, Forward to Richmond! Forward to Richmond! The Rebel Congress must not be allowed to meet there on July 20<sup>th</sup>! By that date the place must be held by the National army!” Editors constantly reiterated “Forward to Richmond” in *The Tribune's* columns.<sup>[1489]</sup> Dana, the master of reiteration, always seemed to be in the midst of radical ideas and actual revolutions, was *The Tribune's* managing editor.

Horace Greeley, who owned only three/twentieths of the paper,<sup>[1490]</sup> and Dana both praised Ulysses S. Grant and endorsed the replacement of the current War Secretary Simon Cameron with Edwin M. Stanton on January 13, 1862. Quite unexpectedly and without reason, Dana received notice from the Board of Trustees asking for his resignation. The trustees of *The Tribune* association assured him by letter, dated March 28, 1862, that “their keen sense of his many noble and endearing qualities...of his conscientious devotion to the duties of his post for so many years... that he still holds the highest place in their esteem and affection... and that his salary would be continued for six months longer.”<sup>[1491]</sup>

Marx would continue writing for *The New York Tribune* until April 1862, over ten years, when he received notice that the newspaper was terminating his services because the newspaper needed to focus on U.S. war news. He was the last foreign correspondent that *The Tribune* dismissed. His sponsor at *The Tribune*, Dana, had left the newspaper the month before and would presently take a position with the War Department. The two maintained a correspondence after they left the paper.<sup>[1492]</sup>

After the Battle of Shiloh, on April 6–7, 1862, Grant abandoned the idea of saving the Union, except by “complete conquest,” not merely occupation but the total destruction of the Confederate armies. Lincoln agreed and instructed General George B. McClellan, before Antietam, “Destroy the Rebel Army.” McClellan was unable or unwilling to do that so Lincoln removed him from command.<sup>[1493]</sup> On November 5, 1862, Lincoln replaced McClellan with Ambrose E. Burnside because McClellan did not pursue Lee after Antietam and he had a moderately successful Peninsula Campaign in 1862. Burnside, who worked under General Grant's direction, had perfect vision, operational skills, and intuitive knowledge and spatial sense of the land, all very advantageous in waging a total war.<sup>[1494]</sup>

McClellan responded in a letter, “It should not be a war looking to the subjugation of the people...Neither confiscation of property...or forcible abolition of slavery should be contemplated for a moment...a

declaration of radical views, especially upon slavery, will rapidly disintegrate our present armies.” McClellan had been against enforced emancipation.<sup>[1495]</sup>

Author Alexander K. McClure depicted Dana as one of the few men who enjoyed Lincoln’s complete confidence. He trusted him in the most delicate matters political and military.<sup>[1496]</sup> As early as June 16, 1862, Dana traveled for the War Department supervising army contracts and working closely with Lincoln, the War Secretary Stanton and General Henry W. Halleck in planning campaigns. Halleck, a West Point graduate, wrote *Elements of Military Art and Science* in 1846, which emphasized the importance of occupation of enemy territory, concentration of forces, command of strategic position, and fortifications.<sup>[1497]</sup>

Dana, once quite satisfied at *The Tribune*, obtained a position with the U.S. War Department where he would become a close confidant of Edwin Stanton, the Secretary of War.<sup>[1498]</sup> Soon after the war erupted, Lincoln and Secretary of State William H. Seward, leader of the Free-soilers and Republicans in Congress,<sup>[1499]</sup> had specifically suggested that Dana join the administration. Most of the cabinet knew him very well, especially Seward and Chase.<sup>[1500]</sup> On March 12, 1863, Dana became a troubleshooting spy for Stanton’s Secret Service, organized to detect disloyal practices against the government. Dana assumed the supervision of this agency, which he vigorously performed.<sup>[1501]</sup> He later took Scott’s place as the Assistant Secretary of War (1863-1865).<sup>[1502]</sup>

People have referred to General William T. Sherman as the inventor of total warfare. He said, “We are not only fighting hostile armies, but a hostile people and must make old and young, rich and poor, feel the hard hand of war, as well as their organized armies.”<sup>[1503]</sup> Sherman reported to General Henry W. Halleck in October 1862, almost two years before his army’s horrendous march from Atlanta to the sea from November to December 1864, “we can make war so terrible...that generations would pass away before they would again appeal to it.” While Sherman was marching to the sea, Sheridan and his army were destroying everything in their path in the Shenandoah Valley. Lincoln sanctioned total war as the only way to victory.<sup>[1504]</sup>

Dana telegraphed General Grant on December 21, 1863 telling him that they had approved of his plan for the winter campaign in Alabama. Stanton told Dana, “If it succeeds, Bragg’s army will become prisoners of war without our having the trouble of providing for them.” After Dana’s message, Grant headed for Mobile.<sup>[1505]</sup>

Lincoln referred to Dana as the “eyes of the administration.” He spent a lot of time at the front and submitted frequent reports to Stanton. The War Department was concerned about Grant’s alleged alcoholism. Dana and Grant became close friends and Dana assuaged the administration’s concerns over Grant’s alcohol use. Dana, after witnessing the Vicksburg Campaign, the Battle of Chickamauga and the Third Battle of Chattanooga urged the administration to promote Grant to the Supreme Command of all the armies.

Ulysses S. Grant, who would be the first four-star general in U.S. history, was appointed to lead the war efforts against the South. On March 12, 1864, he was appointed General in Chief of the Armies of the United States. Grant, Halleck’s subordinate, replaced Major General Henry W. Halleck, lawyer and future land developer. Halleck had been a senior commander in the war against the Indians in the Western Theater. They assigned him to a desk job in Washington.

Grant also took command of the Army of the Potomac in May 1864 and assigned Sheridan and 13,000 Union cavalry to move east. Sherman, who had been in the Western Theater warring against the Indians, would now do battle near Atlanta against the Confederate Army of Tennessee. Grant would battle against General Lee’s soldiers who were defending Richmond.

Lincoln restated his determination to impose unconditional surrender during the winter of 1864-1865. He authorized and skillfully propagated the total war ideologically, politically and militarily and demanded unconditional surrender from the Confederacy.<sup>[1506]</sup> In executing total warfare, Lincoln and his military enforcers abandoned traditional warfare principles regarding non-combatants that others, even Napoleon, abided. He meant to exhaust the South's resources.

Lincoln's War introduced the concept of unconditional surrender as evidenced at Appomattox on April 9, 1865. With this new technology and capacity to kill and destroy, there emerged a new military strategy and a different view of the relationship between the soldier and the non-combatant citizen in addition to when the victor considered that the war was over. Grant could have coined the phrase "unconditional surrender." The concept of total war apparently requires unconditional surrender. Lincoln did not initially require unconditional surrender but the 1864 Republican platform did.<sup>[1507]</sup>

Generals Grant and Sherman implemented total war and unconditional surrender as they both viewed the war experience as one between peoples, not limited to the armies, but rather total war in which the "fighting left nothing untouched or unchanged." Lincoln, a micro-manager with counsel from Dana, recognized the very destructive character of the war that the Union waged and he sanctioned it. The war against the South intentionally destroyed their financial ability to either defend their land or wage a comparable war against their northern invaders. The North claimed they were attempting to heal a breach in the country but their actions reflected just the opposite and created generational bitterness.<sup>[1508]</sup> Ulysses S. Grant and William T. Sherman, both West Point graduates who had resigned their pre-war commissions, obtained their commands through their numerous family and political connections.<sup>[1509]</sup>

After the war, in late December 1867 or early January 1868, Socialist Charles A. Dana bought part ownership in *The New York Sun* in which he continued to promote a socialist agenda. He supported Grant as a general in the war and he used the newspaper to promote him for president, apparently a war hero, in the November 1868 elections.<sup>[1510]</sup>

## **"We Never Would Have Come up There"**

### **The Northern Invasion of the South**

Regarding the defeated civilians in the South, General Philip Henry Sheridan said that they "must be left with nothing but their eyes to weep with over the war."<sup>[1511]</sup>

Lincoln's War, a watershed event, foreshadowed the devastating global wars that followed and operated as a turning point in the military, cultural, political and economic history of America. Recent industrialization revolutionized that war and the very nature of warfare. They had rapid-fire weapons, ironclad ships, crude machine guns, and even airships. It was now possible to supply and move armies over vast areas via the use of railroads and steam-driven transports. New weapons technology changed battlefield strategies and led to the development of trench warfare. Most unfortunate of all, the Union subjected non-combatant citizens to calculated military assault.<sup>[1512]</sup> Lincoln's War, not unlike the later bombings of Japan, served as a gigantic testing ground for assorted, enhanced weapons. They replaced swords, though they still used them, with new rifles, which caused massive deaths. Bullets, bayonets and shell fragments caused most of the war-related deaths. A Confederate general, after the loss of 2,000 of his 6,500 men during just one skirmish said, "It was not war, it was murder." There were a greater number of American soldiers killed during this war, 622,000, than in World War I and II, the Korean War, and the Vietnam War combined.<sup>[1513]</sup>

William T. Sherman wrote, "If the people raise a howl against my barbarity and cruelty, I will answer that war is war, and not popularity-seeking."<sup>[1514]</sup> He further wrote, "I attach more importance to these deep

incisions into the enemy's country, because this war differs from European wars in this particular: we are not only fighting hostile armies, but a hostile people, and must make old and young, rich and poor, feel the hard hand of war, as well as their organized armies.”<sup>[1515]</sup>

Abraham Lincoln, a consummate micro-manager with questionable connections, and the amalgamated personalities of Sherman and Ulysses S. Grant, designed the brutal war with the intention of destroying the southern people and their culture. Hegel characterized such individuals as “world historical individuals” – people who bring about cataclysmic circumstances without actually comprehending their significance. These three individuals, with a radical ideology that incorporated powerful centralization, altered the nature of warfare. Lincoln manipulated the newly established Republican Party to increase and advance the executive power and that of the federal government over the states and he did it under the deceptive guise of freeing the slaves. Grant and Sherman were his brutal military enforcers.<sup>[1516]</sup>

Author Frank S. Meyer wrote, “Nor, once battle was engaged, did Lincoln wage the war in a manner calculated to bring about the conditions of reconciliation. He waged it to win at any cost – and by winning he meant the permanent destruction of the autonomy of the states. We all know his gentle words, ‘with malice toward none, with charity for all,’ but his actions belie this rhetoric.”<sup>[1517]</sup>

Experts define a civil war as two opposing factions within a country that forcefully attempt to seize control of the government. That does not accurately describe the bloody battle fought in America between 1861 and 1865. One cannot correctly describe that dreadful war as a civil war because it was a war between two fully functioning governments. Some have called it the War for Southern Independence or the War of Northern Aggression.<sup>[1518]</sup> I call it Lincoln's War because of his malicious machinations behind the scenes. It was a total war because he directed it against the civilians of the South. All but two of the major battles took place in the Confederate States where people estimate that the Union Army killed at least 50,000 Southern civilians.<sup>[1519]</sup>

Only two battles occurred within the Union, at Antietam and Gettysburg, in Maryland and Pennsylvania respectively. The military fought the Battle of Antietam (also known as the Battle of Sharpsburg), on September 17-18, 1862, near Sharpsburg, Maryland, by Antietam Creek. It was the first of the two battles that they fought in the North and many consider it the bloodiest battle of the whole war. There were approximately 23,000 casualties, including my second great grandfather, John Phelps, a poor North Carolina farmer with three small children. He enlisted on October 31, 1861 in Catawba County, North Carolina as a member of General William D. Pender's Brigade, which Union sharpshooters fired upon for a full day, on September 18, 1862.<sup>[1520]</sup> I also had ancestors who fought with the Union Army.

During another bloody, deadly confrontation, the Battle of Shiloh, on April 6–7, 1862, the Union utterly vanquished the Confederacy. It took place in southwestern Tennessee, in Hardin County. Following the lethal conflict, carnage littered the battlefield; there were dead, wounded and dying horses and men all mangled together. There were so many bodies that there was hardly a place for any survivors or Union soldiers to step. A Union captain came across a mortally wounded and dying Confederate soldier, hardly more than a boy. Blood, his and others near him, covered him. He had rested his head upon the dead body beside him. The dying boy said, “Oh, God! What made you come down here to fight us? We never would have come up there.”<sup>[1521]</sup>

Union troops, like many victors, though the local press remains silent about such things, began stealing private property, raping both black and white females of every age and status, and wantonly slaughtering animals as early as the summer of 1861. They plundered and torched the homes of the rich and the poor, slave quarters, plantations and frequently burned down entire towns, leaving hundreds homeless and vulnerable to starvation. They burned barns and outbuildings, destroyed horses and mules and food sources, cows, pigs, and chickens. They destroyed all food production by burning fields. They cut well

ropes to cause unbearable hardship. This was the Union Army's strategy, devised at the very top, of waging economic, psychological and physical warfare against their fellow citizens. The distinguishing feature of total war is the assault against civilians through outright slaughter or by starvation through the interruption of food production and/or distribution. It was a calculated device to demoralize and depopulate the South. The Union viewed civilians as legitimate military targets.

On August 1, 1861, federal troops forcibly removed from office, Claiborne Jackson, the pro-Confederate governor of Missouri, a neutral state. Most of the people in western Missouri, though sympathetic to the South, had been pro-Union until Lincoln introduced his policy of military oppression and began usurping the responsibilities of the states.<sup>[1522]</sup> On August 18, 1863, General Thomas Ewing issued Order #10, which mandated that the families of known Confederate guerrillas or any women found assisting them would be required to leave the state. On August 25, 1863, following the Lawrence, Kansas raid, Major General John M. Schofield directed General Ewing to deport every individual, regardless of their loyalties, who were residing in Jackson, Cass and Bates Counties and thereafter confiscate all of their properties, whatever the residents could not carry away when they fled. Ewing issued General Order #11 authorizing this deportation within fifteen days. The territory involved comprised of 3,000 square miles and affected more than 20,000 people who would soon be homeless. Upon vacating their homes, the Union militia plundered their houses, barns and outbuildings and then torched them. Thereafter, people called that area the Burnt District.<sup>[1523]</sup> <sup>[1524]</sup>

In 1863, Lincoln wrote to Major General Joseph Hooker, a graduate of the U.S. Military Academy; he wrote, "I have placed you at the head of the Army of the Potomac. I have heard, in such a way as to believe it, of your recently saying that both the army and the government needed a dictator." Hooker apparently did not consider Lincoln and his illegalities dictatorial enough. Hooker, the potential leader of a Radical coup, wanted to make certain that the North won and he was adamant that the South pay dearly for their so-called treasonous rebellion. People often referred to the Radical Republicans as "Jacobins," the Illuminati group that purportedly provoked the French Revolution.<sup>[1525]</sup>

When the war started, West Point graduate Mansfield Lovell, a native of Washington DC and a Freemason left the capital, went south and joined the Confederacy. Southern leaders, happy to have his military expertise, appointed him a Major General on October 7, 1861, and immediately gave him command of the Confederate troops in New Orleans. The Mississippi River, then adjacent to the city of New Orleans, facilitated the Union Army's easy invasion of that city. Major General Lovell, obviously not an authentic defector from the North, ordered the immediate evacuation of his southern troops as soon as Union soldiers arrived on April 26, 1862, relinquishing the historic New Orleans and leaving the city's vulnerable citizens completely unprotected.<sup>[1526]</sup> Abandoning civilians to the enemy's brutality is not an anomaly but, in fact, may be a tactical maneuver as military leaders have often used it. Chiang Kai-Shek, coincidentally another Freemason, abandoned all of North China when he removed his troops from Nanking in December 1937, which triggered China's fall to Communism.

During the Mexican War, Lovell had been an aide to General John A. Quitman, Grand Master of the Mississippi Freemasons. Lovell then retired from the military to take command of Quitman's failed Cuba invasion. He left the military in 1854 and worked for New York's city street commission. After the Mexican War, he lived, for a time, on a plantation in Savannah, Georgia and then returned to New York City.<sup>[1527]</sup> Lovell was highly criticized but no one ever formally reprimanded him for evacuating the city and allowing Union Admiral David Farragut, who, coincidentally, was also a Freemason, to capture it.

General Benjamin F. Butler, a Freemason and a lawyer, accompanied Admiral Farragut's invasion of New Orleans and then occupied the city as the Federal commander. Admiral Farragut directed the Union troops to hoist the U.S. flag over the U.S. Mint Building. A twenty-one year old southern man, William B.

Mumford, offended by the presence of an enemy flag, removed it before a cheering crowd.<sup>[1528]</sup> The citizens of New Orleans, once a very prosperous city, suffered from hunger and high prices, even for essential items if one could even find them. The banks had suspended all specie payments. Yet, despite the destitution, the city's population remained loyal to the Confederacy.<sup>[1529]</sup>

General Butler, soon known as “Beast Butler,” had the young man, Mumford incarcerated for taking the flag down and despite the pleas from the New Orleans community, and soldiers in the Union Army quickly executed him. In December 1862, Confederate President Jefferson Davis issued General Order #111, which charged Butler as a felon for his war crime. Butler, to show contempt for the Southerners, retaliated and issued General Order #28 on May 15, 1862. He, in his Order, instructed his men to treat the women of New Orleans as prostitutes. In addition, Butler sent women and members of the clergy, without the benefit of a trial, to prison for their opposition to the oppressive occupation. He closed churches and shut down newspapers.<sup>[1530]</sup>

Butler also confiscated \$800,000 of Mexican silver that belonged to Hope & Company, the Amsterdam banking house. For safekeeping, a liquor dealer named Amadié Couturié had taken it from the vaults of the Bank of Louisiana before the arrival of the federal troops. Couturié reported this seizure of the silver to the Netherlands legation in Washington. Seward allegedly appointed a special commissioner to examine the matter.<sup>[1531]</sup> Of course, “special commissions,” under numerous administrations have repeatedly proven that they are wholly ineffective and used to silence people who want answers, and are therefore not so “special.”

In June 1864, Louisiana Governor Henry Watkins Allen appointed reliable commissioners to gather eyewitness testimonies regarding the countless atrocities committed by the Union Army during its barbaric invasion of his state. Governor Allen later published *The Conduct of Federal Troops in Louisiana during the Invasions of 1863 and 1864: Official Report*, a well-documented account. Authors James and Walter Kennedy point out two apparent facts regarding the Union's conduct in Louisiana, (1) “The invader felt that nothing Southerners owned or cared for was to be held beyond the Yankee's hate. This would include not only homes, furniture, clothes, crops, food, and the tools of food production, but also churches and even tombs of the recent dead and; (2) the invader had a strong preconceived notion of what life ‘down south’ was like and would not allow contrary facts to change his mind.”<sup>[1532]</sup>

Philip Henry Sheridan, infamous for slaughtering Indians in the west, directed the Army of the Shenandoah from August to October 1864. Brigadier General Wesley Merritt and Brigadier General George Custer also participated. Custer took the west side and Merritt took the east side. Their men were to burn all barns, mills, haystacks and then they began to torch the homes so there was nothing left but ashes. Merritt, apparently very competitive, glanced to the west and noted Custer's trail by the black smoke drifting skyward. Merritt was irritated when it appeared that Custer might be surpassing his destructive efforts, including all and any form of food production in the once beautiful area. Despite the pleas of the women and children who begged for a bit of flour, Merritt and his men continued to burn all property that might be of value. The desperate residents would have to flee north to keep from starving as winter approached. Sheridan said, “The work of incineration was continued and clouds of smoke marked the passage of the federal troops.”<sup>[1533]</sup>

Sheridan later reported to Grant, “I have destroyed over 2,000 barns, filled with wheat, hay, and farming implements, along with over 70 mills filled with flour and wheat.” He had perpetrated this work of death in less than two weeks.<sup>[1534]</sup>

## Union Atrocities against the Blacks

Many resentful Union soldiers blamed, not just slavery, but also the slaves themselves for the war. Black

women were particularly vulnerable to rape, the most under-reported offense in the war, especially when the victims were black. Union military officials did not view crimes against blacks as serious enough to investigate. Soldiers, for amusement, randomly shot at blacks in the street. Black children were often the victims of cruel mistreatment, revealing a widespread attitude in the North towards the blacks. Illinois and Indiana actually amended their laws to prevent blacks from even entering their states, let alone take up residence. Several counties in Iowa, either through the law or by mob force, vowed to drive all blacks from their counties.<sup>[1535]</sup> There was a labor shortage in the North during the war and many unemployed black refugees were willing to move north. However, Lincoln had decided by the “end of 1862 ... that whatever the fate of the former slaves, it would be in the South.” The vast majority of the blacks preferred to stay in the South.<sup>[1536]</sup>

The atrocities committed by the Union against the Southern blacks during the war were rarely, if ever, discussed. Blacks experienced starvation after Union soldiers pillaged and plundered the homes of free blacks and slaves. They regularly killed black women who resisted rape. Soldiers in the Union Army had preconceived notions about the relationships of slave owners to their female slaves. They believed that black female slaves willingly acquiesced to the sexual seduction of their plantation owners. Not only did the Union soldiers have virulent hatred of the blacks but they also had no appreciation for the actual moral values that the blacks traditionally held.<sup>[1537]</sup> Seven Federal soldiers gang raped a black woman. Thereafter, they held her face down in a nearby puddle of water until she drowned. In Columbia, South Carolina, Union soldiers’ gang raped “scores of slave women.” Frequently, southern black men developed extreme bitterness towards the Union because of the way the soldiers treated the female members of their families, a source of anger, which could have erupted into vengeance.<sup>[1538]</sup>

These brutal acts were not isolated, random acts of sexual violence. They were Union policy designed to demoralize and debauch the women of the South, those so-called traitors who thought they had a moral right to make choices about their loyalties. War Secretary Simon Cameron received a letter dated August 13, 1861 regarding the Union rapes against the blacks. He received another letter dated May 2, 1862 revealing the attempted rape and killing of a servant girl. As far as the Yankee soldiers were concerned, there was no difference between the Southern whites and the blacks. The Union soldiers treated all of them inhumanely, pillaged, and plundered their personal properties. They seized their food and left the people to struggle and potentially, to starve.<sup>[1539]</sup>

During Sherman’s March to the Sea, Union troops raped vulnerable females whose husbands were away fighting in the war. Southern women especially found it difficult to discuss the very sensitive and personal issue of rape and often concealed the fact that it had happened to them. However, the University of South Carolina has a large collection of poignant personal and eyewitness accounts of the Union’s debauchery. Union troops frequently threatened slaves to intimidate them in divulging the hiding places of valuables.<sup>[1540]</sup> Sometimes slaves followed the Union Army, thinking that they would be cared for after the soldiers had destroyed their homes. About 2,000 of those slaves perished between May 21 and June 29, 1863. Between May 1863 and March 1864, 8,000 slaves left the more certain security of their homes to follow the Union Army and at least half of them perished.<sup>[1541]</sup> In both instances, this was due to starvation, neglect and abuse at the hands of the Union troops, their alleged liberators.

Federal troops were utterly surprised to find that there were many free blacks residing in the South, people who owned their own homes, had jobs and had acquired private possessions and savings. Union soldiers did not hesitate to pillage everything of value from these individuals; every Southerner was a target, black, white, free or slave. In Louisiana, they pillaged and torched plantations owned by light-skinned blacks who spoke French. In as much as the Union Army had repeatedly confiscated horses and mules, Major General Nathaniel P. Banks, thinking to fill in his military ranks asked, “Why not negroes?”

Alternatively, the army could place former female slaves in confiscated plantations and they could earn money working as prostitutes.<sup>[1542]</sup> The North viewed slaves as contraband per the Confiscation Act of 1861, approved on August 6, 1861. This law stated that Union forces could confiscate any property used by the Confederate military. The Union Army enslaved many of the “freed” slaves who ended up laboring for it.

Lincoln recognized the potential problems with refugee slaves on September 22, 1862, just before issuing the Emancipation Proclamation. He feared an impending influx of refugees. With all of these emancipated slaves, the federal government had the challenge of feeding and caring for them – not up North but in the South. The concept of contraband camps emerged, administered by a new agency the government called the Freedman’s Bureau. The refugee camps or concentration camps provided free housing, which the residents constructed from supplies provided by the paternalistic federal government. The resident’s food, in small rations, came from military stores. However, bureaucratic red tape often impeded the food supplies. There was overcrowding, separation of family units, starvation, disease, and an extremely high mortality rate in the contraband camps. In 1864, Congress stopped funding the medical care of contrabands through the military budget. Contraband hospitals, even when they existed, were unsanitary, inadequate and understaffed.<sup>[1543]</sup>

Horrible conditions existed in the contraband camps. James Yeatman, of the Western Sanitary Commission wrote, “It would seem, now, that one-half are doomed to die in the process of freeing the rest.” The Union took care of the freed slaves who showed evidence of critical health issues. However, given the war was still raging when the government instituted the contraband camps, the freed black population were at the bottom of the rung as far as continued access to proper food, shelter and clothing. Consequently, mortality rates were high. From the contraband camps, a terrible name in and of itself, the black population typically moved into older segregated neighborhoods where they suffered from poverty and illiteracy. The white population refused to employ, educate or even associate with the blacks.<sup>[1544]</sup>

James Yeatman wrote a letter to President Lincoln describing the appalling conditions in the camp in the Mississippi Valley. Yeatman wrote that there were at least 50,000 people, mainly women and children. The Union had made no “adequate provision” for them. He wrote, “The majority of them have no shelter but what they call ‘brush tents,’ fit for nothing but to protect them from night dews. They are very poorly clad – many of them half-naked – and almost destitute of beds and bedding – thousands of them sleeping on the bare ground. The Government supplies them with rations, but many unavoidable delays arise in the distribution so that frequent instances of great destitution occur. The army rations (beef and crackers) are also a kind of diet they are not used to; they have no facilities of cooking, and are almost ignorant of the use of wheat flour; and even when provisions in abundance are supplied, they are so spoiled in cooking as to be neither eatable nor wholesome. Add to these difficulties, the helplessness and improvidence of those who have always been slaves, together with their forlorn and jaded condition when they reach our lines, and we can easily account for the fact that sickness and death prevail to a fearful extent. No language can describe the suffering, destitution and neglect which prevail in some of their ‘camps.’ The sick and dying are left uncared for, in many instances, and the dead unburied.”<sup>[1545]</sup>

For all the commotion about freeing the slaves from the terrible southern taskmasters, the northerners relegated them to new contraband camps called ghettos.

## **Sherman’s Scorched-Earth March to the Sea**

William T. Sherman’s father died in 1829 leaving a widow, seven children and no inheritance. Neighbor and friend Thomas Ewing, the father of Thomas Ewing, an attorney, a Congressman from Ohio, and a Union General, raised Sherman.

In 1863, Sherman wrote to Henry W. Halleck, Chief-of-Staff, and noted expert in military studies, “Can we whip the South? If we can, our numerical majority has both the natural and constitutional right to govern them. If we cannot whip them, they contend for the natural right to select their own government... our officers, marshals, and courts, must penetrate into the innermost recesses of their land...we will remove and destroy every obstacle, if need be, take every life, every acre of land, every particle of property, everything that to us seems proper...we will not account to them for our acts.”<sup>[1546]</sup> In a letter to his wife, Sherman explained his war objectives – extermination of both soldiers and citizens. His like-minded wife agreed that the war should be a war of extermination where the Union would drive all of the Southerners into the sea like swine.<sup>[1547]</sup> To cover his bureaucratic behind, Sherman generated a sufficient number of memos to his subordinates admonishing them against pillaging, simply to go on record as a responsible military leader who simply could not prevent his soldiers plunder and violence.<sup>[1548]</sup> Sherman, with regard to pillage, robbery, and violence, later claimed, “...these acts were exceptional and incidental.”<sup>[1549]</sup>

After Sherman’s Atlanta Campaign (May 7 to September 2, 1864), General Grant, the Union’s top general and future U.S. president (1869-1877) and Sherman collaborated on the Savannah Campaign, known as Sherman’s March to the Sea. In the Vicksburg Campaign (March to July 1863), Grant officially implemented the scorched earth policy – the troops lived off the land and destroyed infrastructure, manufacturing facilities and agriculture around Vicksburg, Mississippi. The policy, defined in Special Field Order #120, dated November 9, 1864, called for burning all crops, killing all livestock, consuming or destroying all supplies, and destroying all civilian infrastructures like railway lines along their path. Sherman would do the same thing from Atlanta to Savannah, Georgia, about 300 miles, with his 62,000 troops divided into two wings; in an estimated forty-mile wide path, they would destroy approximately \$100 million dollars of public and private property including railroads, bridges, and telegraph lines.<sup>[1550]</sup> Sherman’s troops seized 5,000 horses, 4,000 mules, and 13,000 head of cattle, 9.5 million pounds of corn and 10.5 million pounds of fodder.

On November 11, 1864, Sherman and his troops arrived in Atlanta, a city they had heavily shelled three months before. Demolition teams had already been at work for a week setting charges and burying explosives in strategic places. Then on November 14, 1864, they lit the charges and Atlanta exploded into flames destroying about 37% of the city and about 5,000 buildings.<sup>[1551]</sup> The Confederate soldiers had already vacated Atlanta so this fiery destruction was not a military necessity. Atlanta’s remaining residents were now homeless and winter was imminent. Union General Henry Warner Slocum led his troops from Atlanta on the morning of November 15, 1864 and headed east by Decatur and Stone Mountain, toward Madison. Sherman remained in Atlanta to direct the loading of trains and complete the destruction of the important buildings, the buildings that housed important records. Sherman left on November 16, headed southeast towards Jonesboro and Slocum. The two groups would assault Mason and Augusta simultaneously. The next objective was Milledgeville, Georgia’s capital, about seven days away.<sup>[1552]</sup>

Since the march began in November, the southern farmers had already harvested and gathered all the crops and stored them in the barns, ready for use. The pillaging soldiers predictably found the barns filled with grain, fodder, and peas. Outbuildings contained huge stores of cotton. Hogs, chickens, and turkeys roamed within fenced yards. Sherman was intent on the total destruction of everything in the Union’s path to the sea. His men entered homes and took everything of value – jewelry, silver, and clothes, before torching the dwelling. They killed thousands of hogs, sheep, and poultry and family pets. They took the best horses and mortally wounded the rest, many suffering horrifically before dying. The point of this wanton killing was the economic and cultural destruction of the South. The troops torched and destroyed numerous towns and cities, including Columbia, the capital of South Carolina with its buildings and

official records. The most efficient way to destroy a supposed enemy's culture is to destroy their historical records, their buildings, and their artwork whether we are considering the southern states of America, or currently, the countries of Iraq and Afghanistan.

Sherman's campaign also included a senseless "war on dogs" wherein all dogs were shot, bayoneted or beaten to death with the butts of a gun to save ammunition. Routinely, dogs were the first victims of brutality when the Yankees broke into a residence. Terrified children, who cherished their beloved pets, frequently witnessed these wanton acts of cruelty. This viciousness was not restricted to dogs. In one yard, a hen escaped death but the soldiers chased her chicks, grabbing them and squeezing them to death.<sup>[1553]</sup> The extermination policy was that "no dog (hound) shall be left alive." This included puppies because "pups would soon be dogs if not killed."<sup>[1554]</sup>

When they reached North Carolina, federal soldiers appropriated horses, mules, and wagons from the inhabitants, "freely and without limit."<sup>[1555]</sup> Federal forces seized all means of transportation, including that used to pull farm implements. The federal troops did not need all of these animals, about 1,000 horses and mules. Therefore, they used two killing fields to destroy them, one adjacent to the Cape Fear River and the other a corral in Fayetteville. The poor animals were shot and left where they fell. The terrified animals near the river often bolted and plummeted to their deaths into the water.<sup>[1556]</sup>

As many as 20,000 slaves living in Georgia fled, as they had in other areas, to the occupying Union forces. Many of the slaves who followed Sherman and his army were "quickly disappointed." On December 3, 1864, with Confederate troops hot on their trail, Sherman's troops blew up the bridge after crossing Ebenezer Creek close to Savannah and left over 500 frightened black refugees stranded on the other side. The Union soldiers shot some of the refugees; some with children clinging to them, jumped into the creek and drowned. Others, who had always counted on their owners for basic essentials, returned to their homes.<sup>[1557]</sup>

In his annual message to Congress on December 6, 1864, before the end of Sherman's hellish campaign, Lincoln said, "The most remarkable feature in the military operations of the year is General Sherman's attempted march of three hundred miles directly through the insurgent region. It tends to show a great increase of our relative strength that our General-in-Chief Grant should feel able to confront and hold in check every active force of the enemy, and yet to detach a well-appointed large army to move on such an expedition. The result not yet being known, conjecture in regard to it is not here indulged."<sup>[1558]</sup> Sherman's march ended with the capture of the port of Savannah on December 21, 1864.

With conscription, mandatory military service, General Grant had absolutely no reluctance in sending thousands of Union soldiers into bloody warfare and to their possible deaths. Lincoln, in that same message to Congress, bragged that the Union army and navy were superior to any in the world and that the northern population and war production were increasing. He said, "We are not exhausted nor in process of exhaustion; that we are gaining strength and may if need be maintain the contest indefinitely. This as to men. Material resources are now more complete and abundant than ever."<sup>[1559]</sup> Grant, perhaps like Kissinger, thought that *military men were just dumb stupid animals, expendable and easily replaced*.

Author Thomas DiLorenzo maintains that this war was a war of attrition because Grant recognized that he could replace those who perished. About 300,000 people were slaughtered at the hands of people like Grant. The Republican Party dogma of relentless massacre to abolish slavery, as a war measure, and save the Union was a sham and a fraud. Walt Whitman reportedly said, "The war taught America that a nation cannot be trifled with." In other words, oblige us or we will shoot you.<sup>[1560]</sup>

## **Financing the Bloodbath, 1861-1865, a Pattern for the Future**

Before Lincoln's War, several Jewish banking houses, representing foreign entities, existed including August Belmont, Speyer and Co., J. and W. Seligman and Co., Kuhn, Loeb and Co., Lehman Brothers, J. S. Bache and Co., Landenburg, Thalmann and Co., and Goldman, Sachs and Co. A large community of

Jews lived in New Amsterdam (New York). By 1860, there were at least 40,000 Jews in New York prior to Lincoln's War.<sup>[1561]</sup>

The London Rothschilds positioned agent provocateurs in the U.S. including Judah P. Benjamin, a "staunch supporter of slavery,"<sup>[1562]</sup> who became General Lee's top financial advisor, among the other offices he held in the Confederacy. August Belmont, Rothschild's agent in New York and John Slidell, a native New Yorker and Belmont's nephew by marriage, was in New Orleans. They each maneuvered circumstances to initiate conflict. The Confederacy issued some of its own money but also sent Slidell and James Mason to France in 1861 to borrow money.<sup>[1563]</sup>

The Union paid their soldiers with interest-free Treasury notes, authorized by Congress on July 17, 1861, for \$50,000,000. These notes circulated at par with gold. When the Union needed additional financing, the government negotiated with New York's Rothschild financiers who offered Lincoln a high-interest \$150 million loan. However, Lincoln's advisors suggested that the government issue its own interest-free money to fund the war rather than incur debt. Congress enacted a bill to issue \$150 million, full legal tender for every debt in the U.S. It passed the House of Representatives on February 25, 1862.<sup>[1564]</sup> There was one stipulation; the Congressmen who actually represented the bank's interests permitted the issue of greenbacks only if individuals could convert the bills into bonds. This convertibility feature would allow the bankers and their agents to enact legislation, which would authorize the redemption of the bonds into specie.<sup>[1565]</sup>

Congress passed the Revenue Act of 1861, on August 5, 1861, Chapter XLV, An Act to provide increased Revenue from Imports, to pay Interest on the Public Debt, and for other Purposes.<sup>[1566]</sup> In their efforts to raise money, Congress, "under the instructions of the Treasury Department," imposed a 3% federal income tax, beginning in January 1862. This flat-rate tax applied to "the annual income of every person residing in the United States, whether such income is derived from any kind of property, or from any profession, trade, employment, or vocation carried on in the United States or elsewhere... on the amount...above eight hundred dollars. For those citizens living outside of the country, the rate was 5%."<sup>[1567]</sup>

In March 1862, Congress passed the Revenue Act of 1862 which Lincoln signed on July 1, 1862, introducing the first progressive rate income tax in the country. It was "An Act to provide Internal Revenue to support the Government and to pay Interest on the Public Debt." The act also established the Office of Commissioner of Internal Revenue. To facilitate a timely collection, the employer "withheld" the income tax "at the source."<sup>[1568]</sup> This act, while repealing the previous flat-rate tax, retained the "temporary" income tax of 3% tax on incomes that exceeded \$600 and imposed a 5% tax on incomes above \$10,000, the beginning of the graduated income tax. The termination date of this act was 1866.<sup>[1569]</sup>

Interestingly, on June 19, 1862, just prior to the passage of the first progressive income, advocated by Karl Marx in *The Communist Manifesto*, Congress enacted general emancipation, another Marxist concept, in all the federal territories, "An Act to secure Freedom to all Persons within the Territories of the United States." The act reads, "Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That from and after the passage of this act there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in any of the Territories of the United States now existing, or which may at any time hereafter be formed or acquired by the United States, otherwise than in punishment of crimes whereof the party shall have been duly convicted."<sup>[1570]</sup> People, now and then, require money and employment to exist, rather than living off the land and the fruits of their own labor. Yet, the imposition of income tax, associated with one's labor enslaves the whole population and extracts the very essence of one's freedom. Emancipation of everyone is necessary as it places everyone at the same level, except those who secret their monies in tax-exempt foundations or 501.3c organizations or corporations.

Thaddeus Stevens of the House of Representatives explained that bank agents in the Senate further

compromised the greenback by tacking an amendment onto the bill that required the Exception Clause phrase on each note, “Good for all debts both public and private except duty on imports and interest on Government debts.” This act devalued the greenbacks to about thirty cents on the dollar, one of the factors that led to the passage of the National Banking Act.<sup>[1571]</sup> This bill benefited only one class of people, the Rothschilds’ Wall Street branch.<sup>[1572]</sup> Stevens, the Chairman of the House Committee of Ways and Means authored the earlier version of the Legal Tender Act, which read, “These U.S. Notes, legal tender for all debts, to be used by the masses but not redeemable in gold.”<sup>[1573]</sup>

The Rothschilds had possession of 80% of the country’s gold. They created inequity against the greenback through the addition of the Exception Clause on each note, which made a market for their gold. Importers had to visit Wall Street to buy gold to pay duties. Since Rothschild had a monopoly, they set the price. If they had not devalued and restricted the greenbacks, if they had retained their full legal tender, gold would have been unnecessary to pay import duties. Gold prices increased rapidly by the war’s end. Importers used the gold they had purchased on Wall Street to pay import duties to the government that was then paid back to Wall Street as interest on the public debt. The bankers merely recycled the gold. The gold speculators, merchants of death, made fortunes from the slaughter of individuals on both sides of the conflict.<sup>[1574]</sup>

In July 1862, Congress issued another \$150 million in greenbacks with the same flexible bond feature. With the ability to convert notes into bonds, the bankers hoped to be able to convert the bonds into specie. Although the government declared the money legal tender, it was not redeemable for coin. This was the first government-generated U.S. currency since the founders ratified the Constitution. In March 1863, the government issued another \$150 million in greenbacks except this time they retracted the conversion feature. The bankers began denouncing the greenbacks as fiat money. Then, working with Congress, they passed a law in December 1865 to contract this debt-free money to get rid of all three issues of the greenback, which they did by 1879.<sup>[1575]</sup>

International banking empires build massive wealth through government bonds. Therefore, it is essential to accrue government debt. The higher the debt the more interest the taxpayer pays. War creates more debt than any other endeavor.<sup>[1576]</sup> International bankers discredited the greenbacks and then ironically, Congress authorized Secretary Chase to obtain foreign loans. Chase, rather than traveling abroad, talked to Belmont, his good friend, who offered to unofficially represent the Treasury abroad. He negotiated with British, French, and German bankers and after a month reported that current circumstances “are not at all propitious” (favorable) for a loan. He told Chase that the relevant bankers preferred neutrality, an unusual response given that the bankers were/are always internationalists. However, it was merely leverage. They wanted Congress to repeal the unpopular Morrill tariff, of March 2, 1861, designed with the advice of Henry C. Carey. This, the bankers implied, might help bring the necessary financing.<sup>[1577]</sup> By summer of 1861, Secretary Chase, though usually an advocate of free trade, and Morrill passed another tariff, which added another ten points, not what the bankers were seeking.

Congress ultimately repealed the Morrill Tariff Act of March 2, 1861. President Woodrow Wilson, a pawn for the international banking cabal, convened a special joint session of Congress in April 1913 to confront the tariff question. He claimed that tariff reform was essential. The Democrats controlled both houses of Congress for the first time in eighteen years. Oscar W. Underwood guided a reform measure through the House and Furnifold McLendel (F. M.) Simmons did the same in the Senate. Wilson, while warning the public of the lobbyists who represented international firms, adequately intimidated the Democrats into tariff reform. Meanwhile, the newspapers promoted reform, which generated a public demand for tariff reform. Constituents wrote to members of Congress pleading for tariff reform. Congress replaced the Morrill Tariff Act of March 2, 1861 with the Revenue Act of 1913, on May 8, 1913, also

known as Underwood Tariff of 1913, after one of its sponsors, Oscar Underwood.

It lowered basic tariff rates from 40% to 25%, below the Payne-Aldrich Tariff Act of 1909, the lowest rates since the Walker Tariff of 1857, which benefitted the South. It opened the door to international, rather than national interests – essential to the objectives of the emerging multinational corporations. However, and most significantly, this act re-imposed the federal income tax after the states had allegedly ratified the Sixteenth Amendment. Wilson and Congress justified the income tax as a means to compensate for the anticipated loss of revenues because of the reduction of tariff duties. Wilson signed it into law on October 3, 1913.

Eastern Republicans endorsed Chase's idea about a bank loan to fund the war. Certain economists insisted that the capital and interests of the government were compatible. As Alexander Hamilton had pointed out, financiers had rescued the nation during the Revolutionary War. Moreover, if patriotism failed, financiers had an interest in the Union's survival. Republicans advocated Hamilton's idea of linking the nation's currency with its government. Chase's bond offer began that process. Others resisted his alliance with the financiers due to their bad experiences with "wildcat banking," coupled with their general distrust of banks. One of them said, referring to the bankers, "This army of little leeches is sucking the life blood, in small quantities, out of the laboring people of this country."<sup>[1578]</sup>

Before 1862, state-regulated banks conducted all banking. Instead of borrowing, Lincoln enacted legislation to create a national bank and subsidiaries to which the government would supply notes based on the security of U.S. bonds deposited in the Treasury. The greenbacks would be backed by and exchangeable with coins. This would purportedly protect labor against flexible insecure currency while assisting commerce through safe exchanges. Congress and the general population adopted honest Abe's suggestion, despite skepticism. Currency went from the jurisdiction of the state to a national currency but this was merely a step towards a national bank and ultimately, the Federal Reserve.

In July 1862, the English moneylenders distributed the *Hazard Circular*, literally Rothschild's threat against the greenback. They could not control the greenback but they controlled the bonds and through them the bank-issued currency. Rothschild's plan declared that capital (banks, inflation and deflation) must control labor (the population) by controlling wages. They wanted the U.S. to fund the war with bonds in order to accrue debt. They were quite blatant in admitting that all they needed was for Treasury Secretary Chase, a Freemason to promote this idea to Congress. He worked with Jay Cooke & Company in order to successfully sell the first \$500 million in government war bonds.<sup>[1579]</sup>

Chase appointed Cooke as special agent in charge of certain bonds, called five-twenties. The Cooke family developed a close relationship with Chase when he was Ohio governor (1856-1860). Henry Cooke, Jay's brother, was the editor of the *Ohio State Journal* in Columbus, a newspaper that had supported Chase for the presidency in 1860. Henry Cooke also backed Senator John J. Sherman and Ulysses S. Grant. After Chase became Treasury Secretary on March 7, 1861, he asked Jay Cooke to be Assistant Treasurer in charge of the sub-treasury in Philadelphia. He declined, as he did not want to relinquish his new enterprise.<sup>[1580]</sup> He could make more profit and advance his own business if he were an agent for the sale of government bonds during the imminent war.

In July 1861, Cooke had opened a Washington office under the direction of his brother Henry. Chase allowed Cooke's firm to manage the government-issued loans for a small commission. Chase also appointed Cooke as Subscription Agent for the National Loan. Cooke had previously accompanied Chase to New York to help him negotiate a \$50 million loan and then worked to find buyers for the bonds, particularly small subscribers who were proud of their patriotic efforts.<sup>[1581]</sup>

Cooke, using patriotism, negotiated loans for the government and handled the sale of government bonds.

He obtained \$3 billion in loans for the war effort, which put the government deeply in debt by the war's end but U.S. currency was stable and investors considered U.S. bonds as good investments. He used his war profits to invest in coal and iron mining, life insurance and railroads, including the Northern Pacific, part of the transcontinental railroad.<sup>[1582]</sup> Chase intimidated bankers into accepting the bonds he issued and flooded the country with notes, to the point that it required \$1,000 of such currency to buy breakfast.<sup>[1583]</sup>

Secretary Chase and the northern banking trust designed the National Banking Act, which passed on February 25, 1863. They had already devalued the greenback, which prompted its passage. It called for a federally chartered national bank and interest-bearing currency. Lincoln signed the legislation and thereby shifted the nation's money into private hands. In 1863, there were approximately 1,600 different circulating bank notes issued by state-chartered banks with a specie redemption feature. This was a negative factor in advancing the new legislation with a national currency, something that Lincoln had promoted. Its true objective was to shift to government bonds as the foundation for banking. The Hazard Circular read, "It will not do to allow Greenbacks, as they are called, to circulate as money for any length of time as we cannot control that. But we can control the bonds ..." National Banks issued bank notes until Executive Order 6102 in 1933.<sup>[1584]</sup> Chase's actions were critical in instituting a national bank and putting it into private hands. John Thompson, founder of Chase National Bank, memorialized him. The government printed his photo on \$10,000 U.S. Treasury notes (1928-1946).

On June 25, 1863, Senator John Sherman wrote a letter to the London Rothschilds about the National Banking Act, actually formulated by the British Bankers Association. He wrote, "The few who understand the system will either be so interested in its profits, or so dependent on its favors that there will be no opposition from that class, while on the other hand, the great body of people, mentally incapable of comprehending the tremendous advantages that Capital derives from the system, will bear its burden without complaint, and perhaps without even suspecting that the system is inimical to their interests." The act, a federal law based on a system of national charters for banks advocated a national currency based on the holdings of U.S. Treasury securities. It established the Office of the Comptroller of the Currency (OCC) as part of the Treasury Department. They devised it to be highly profitable to the international banking fraternity.<sup>[1585]</sup>

Sherman, with his eager eyes on the White House, cozied up to the bankers who he thought might subsidize his aspirations. Often those with massive resources are not particularly discriminating in their methods of acquiring or eliminating political influence.<sup>[1586]</sup> Sherman became chairman of the Senate Finance Committee in 1864. His older brother was General William T. Sherman. Senator Sherman was influential in the creation of the Union's financial policies and was friends with Secretary Chase and Jay Cooke.<sup>[1587]</sup>

The National Currency Act of 1863, together with Lincoln's greenbacks raised funds for the Union by persuading banks to purchase federal bonds while taxing state bank-issued currency out of existence. Congress replaced the law with the National Bank Act of 1864, which authorized the OCC to examine and regulate nationally chartered banks. Another act, passed on March 3, 1865, imposed a 10% tax on State bank notes, effective July 1, 1866. The tax forced all non-federal currency out of circulation. The number of national banks increased to 1,644 by October 1866. Bank regulations changed again in 1908 with the enactment of the Aldrich-Vreeland Act, preparatory to the Federal Reserve.

On December 6, 1864, Lincoln, in his annual message to Congress, said, "The national banking system is proving to be acceptable to capitalists and to the people. On November 25, 1864, five hundred and eighty-four national banks had been organized, a considerable number of which were conversions from State banks...it is hoped that, very soon, there will be in the United States, no banks of issue not authorized by Congress, and no bank-note circulation not secured by government ...The national system

will create a reliable and permanent influence in support of the national credit, and protect people against losses in the use of paper money.”<sup>[1588]</sup>

Nationalizing the currency facilitated the takeover of the U.S. monetary resources. Lincoln’s War gave bankers an opportunity to finance profitable mass slaughter. They replaced state-chartered free banking with privately owned national banks, under the control of a few people. Lincoln’s War is a prime example of Hegelian conflict designed to implement sweeping changes. The most significant change was the loss of monetary independence.<sup>[1589]</sup> On July 1, 1857, the public debt was \$29,060,387.00 with a cash balance of \$17,710,114.<sup>[1590]</sup> In 1863, England, long engaged in imperialistic warfare, had a public debt of \$4,000,918,944 on which the interest totaled \$127,564,548. By 1866, because of the war, the public debt of the U.S. was \$4,000,000,000 with interest totaling \$292,000,000.<sup>[1591]</sup>

On January 14, 1875, Senator John Sherman, a Wall Street minion throughout his lengthy career, got the Specie Resumption Act through Congress. This provided for the redemption, in gold, of greenbacks, issued, beginning in 1862. This took effect on January 1, 1879. During his advocacy of this act, he was, according to Henry L. Stoddard, *New York Republican* publisher, very chummy with the bankers at the First National Bank of New York. People even referred to the bank as Fort Sherman.<sup>[1592]</sup>

The Confederacy issued its own currency and borrowed money from European sources. In 1861, John Slidell and James Mason went to France to negotiate a loan for the South. Negotiations began with the Erlanger & Company. The Erlangers, also agents for the Crédit Mobilier, underwrote the sale of a \$15 million bond issue for the Confederacy, redeemable in cotton. When they issued the bonds, cotton was expensive. Consequently, people immediately over-subscribed the bonds. August Belmont immediately discredited the bonds making the price fall, which left some British investors with major losses while those who floated the bonds made huge profits.<sup>[1593]</sup> In 1863, J. H. Schröder and E. Erlanger both provided loans to the Confederacy.<sup>[1594]</sup>

The Erlanger bonds, for sale at 90% of the value, were issued in five cities, Paris, London, Liverpool, Frankfurt and Amsterdam on March 19, 1863. Their sale totaled £1,759,894 (\$8,535,486), issued in four denominations: £100 (4000 lb. of cotton), £200 (8,000 lb.), £500 (20,000 lb.) and £1,000 (40,000 lb.). People could exchange the bonds for Confederate government-owned cotton, obtainable only by running the Union’s blockade.

Judah P. Benjamin’s English connection was James Bulloch, a John Quitman confidant, who officials later charged with procuring arms for the Confederacy. On October 3, 1864, Slidell’s daughter Mathilde married Baron Frédéric Emile d’Erlanger, a French, German Jewish banker with influential British connections as well as ties to Freemasonry. His father Baron Raphael Erlanger of Frankfort functioned as a confidential Rothschild agent. Erlanger managed a series of Confederacy war bonds, which well-connected Brits who detested American independence happily purchased. The Union-imposed blockade necessitated smuggling the slave-produced cotton. Cotton collateralized the bonds.<sup>[1595]</sup>

When it became apparent that the Union would win the war, the Rothschild agents bought huge blocks of Union Bonds, previously purchased by insiders for less than half their value. This became an issue in the 1868 elections. General Grant, influenced by the bankers, led by Belmont, supported the repayment of the bonds in specie. When the citizens reelected Grant, he signed the Credit Strengthening Act of March 18, 1869, which made the bonds redeemable in specie, which increased their value by about 100%.<sup>[1596]</sup> The Rothschilds cashed in.

## From the Revolution Forward

The majority of the Battle of Antietam, the bloodiest single-day battle in American history, occurred on September 17, 1862 resulting in 23,000 casualties. President Abraham Lincoln, under his war powers,

issued the Emancipation Proclamation, an executive order, on January 1, 1863. The proclamation declared the freedom of the majority, 3.1 million of the nation's four million slaves, immediately liberating 50,000 people, with the promise of freedom for the remaining slaves as the Union armies subdued and occupied the southern states. The Battle of Gettysburg occurred July 1–3, 1863 resulting in between 46,000 and 51,000 casualties.

President Lincoln, on November 19, 1863, in a two-minute speech at Gettysburg said, “Four score and seven years ago *our fathers brought forth on this continent* a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal.”

“Now we are engaged in a great *civil war*, testing whether that nation, or any nation, so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battle-field of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field, as a final resting place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this.”

“But, in a larger sense, we can not dedicate, we can not consecrate, we can not hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it, far above our poor power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us the living, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us—that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion—that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain—that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom—and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.”

Author George P. Fletcher suggests that the Gettysburg Address, written in stone at the Lincoln Memorial, “functions as the preamble to the second American constitution,” followed by the Thirteenth (December 6, 1865), Fourteenth (July 9, 1868) and Fifteenth Reconstruction (February 3, 1870) Amendments, between 1865 and 1870.<sup>[1597]</sup> In the first part of the address, he said, “*our fathers brought forth on this continent*,” reminiscent of the biblical story of God's interaction with Moses the Book of Exodus. Lincoln, though not overtly Christian, made use of the Bible, along with the works of Shakespeare and Aesop's Fables. He referenced the Bible in his second inaugural address. Lincoln, like other wartime presidents, viewed what he referred to as the Civil War, as the “righteous judgment of the Divine.” Therefore, it was rather incumbent upon him to use biblical imagery and rhetoric to make his case. In a previous speech, in 1861, he referred to the American citizens as “His almost chosen people,” implying a covenant relationship with God, the same specialty that the Jews have always claimed.<sup>[1598]</sup>

The Pilgrims apparently had this sense of coming to a promised land in the new world after their exodus from the old world to found their first settlements, which the Indians already inhabited. Lincoln possibly adopted this idea in his phrase, “brought forth on this continent.” While the Declaration of Independence contains numerous references to the Creator, the Constitution of 1787 is secular in nature. Lincoln chooses to use the religiosity of the 1776 Declaration.<sup>[1599]</sup>

His use of the word nation, “brought forth on this continent a new nation,” establishes the major theme of the speech. He uses the word four more times and in doing so, he differs with the first preamble in the declarative declaration written by “We the People,” the original sovereigns who chose to unite. By emphasizing the word “nation,” Lincoln legitimizes a new authority, the national government, as a permanent replacement for the “people.” Presumably, the fratricidal war forcibly birthed a new nation, which apparently reverts to and transforms its original founding documents eighty-seven years before. After all, at least 73,000 men have “given their lives” and those who survive the war will “flourish in its aftermath.”<sup>[1600]</sup> Heinrich von Treitschke said, “It is war that turns a people into a nation.”<sup>[1601]</sup>

<u>Revolutionary Constitution:</u>	<u>Lincoln's War Constitution:</u>
<u>Dates:</u>	<u>Dates:</u>
Proposed 1787	Preamble 1863
Effective 1789	Reconstruction Amendments
Amended w/ Bill of rights 1791	1865, 1868, and 1870

<u>Authority:</u> We the People	<u>Authority:</u> the nation
<u>Primary value:</u> Freedom	<u>Primary value:</u> Equality
<u>Mode of government:</u>	<u>Mode of government:</u> Democracy
	Republican style and form

Highest power: will of the living Highest powers: Command of history, Divine mission<sup>[1602]</sup>

President Lincoln implemented some preliminary acts, the two Confiscation Acts, the first on August 6, 1861, and the second on July 17, 1862. Looking at certain rebellious states already under Union control, on March 3, 1862, he installed Democrat Senator Andrew Johnson as Military Governor of the state of Tennessee. In May 1862, Lincoln assigned Edward Stanly Military Governor of the coastal area of North Carolina. He installed Brigadier General George F. Sheply as Military Governor of Louisiana in May 1862. In July 1862, Lincoln installed Colonel John S. Phelps as Military Governor of Arkansas.

Senator Benjamin F. Wade and Representative Henry W. Davis, two Radical Republicans sponsored the legislation for the appointments of provisional military governors in the seceded states. Senator Ira Harris of New York first introduced the ideas contained in the Wade–Davis Bill in February 1863. Harris was a Whig from Albany County, was in the New York State Assembly (1845-1846), a delegate to the New York State Constitutional Convention (1846), a member of the New York State Senate (1847), and a justice of the New York Supreme Court (1847-1859). Harris was good friends with William H. Seward. His son, William Harris, was an officer in the Army Ordnance Department. Lincoln's guests, at Ford's Theater on April 14, 1865, were Harris' daughter Clara Harris and her future husband, Henry Rathbone, a stepson of Ira Harris. Clara and Henry married in 1867. Ira Harris had remarried to Pauline Rathbone, Henry's mother. Harris was on the Joint Committee on Reconstruction, the group that drafted the Fourteenth Amendment.

The Wade–Davis Bill passed both houses of Congress on July 2, 1864. They proposed this legislation to counteract Lincoln's more lenient Ten Percent Plan with the Ironclad Oath, which made re-admittance to the Union for former Confederate states contingent on a majority in each Southern state. Congress initially conceived of the oath in July 1862 for all federal employees, lawyers and all federally elected officials.

As soon as a majority of a state's white citizens swore allegiance to the Union, they could call a constitutional convention. The officials in each state, in its constitution, had to abolish slavery, repudiate secession, and disqualify Confederate officials from voting or holding an official position. To gain the franchise, be a part of the Union, officials required a person to take an oath that he had not willingly given assistance to the Confederacy. President Lincoln vetoed the Wade–Davis Bill and set the stage for the future struggle between President Andrew Johnson and the Radical Republicans in Congress. Lincoln vetoed the Wade-Davis bill on July 4, 1864, after Congress had adjourned.<sup>[1603]</sup>

Our government schools, the serial purveyors of false versions of history, have always taught us that John Wilkes Booth shot Lincoln over the Greenback currency issue. However, given the exchange stipulations surrounding the greenback and the money the international bankers made, it was not an issue. The so-called alternative media, possibly controlled opposition, would have us believe that Booth may have been a Rothschild agent. Booth may have associated with Rothschild agents and may have been an agent and even the shooter but one must evaluate who the benefactors of Lincoln's death were – the Radical Republicans and probably the British. William H. Seward, a friend of Ira Harris, worked for a New York-based British political faction after the war.

With the Union's victory, and Lincoln out of the way, the Radical Republicans in Congress, led by Thaddeus Stevens and Charles Sumner initiated the Reconstruction (1863-1877), of the southern states, policies they had devised far in advance. In 1867, the Union divided the ten southern states, with the exception of Tennessee, into five military districts, all supervised by the U.S. Army. The Union readmitted each state between 1868 and 1870 on the condition that they accept the Thirteenth, Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments allegedly intended to secure the civil rights of the freed slaves.

The Republican majority in Congress enacted the Civil Rights Act of 1866, the Reconstruction Acts of 1867, and the Thirteenth, Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments. Thereafter, Congress ignored the guarantee clause – “The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a Republican Form of Government” in favor of the Thirteenth, Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments, authority for persistent intervention in each state's affairs. These amendments shifted the primary explanation and enforcement of citizenship rights from the states to the national government and centralized power in Washington while depriving the states of their separate and autonomous political responsibilities. They demonstrated this in 1873 when the federal courts, supported by the military force of the U. S. Army, emerged as the primary agencies to enforce equal rights in the South.<sup>[1604]</sup>

In March 1865, Socialist Robert Dale Owen had given Lincoln the initial draft of the Fourteenth Amendment, which officials slightly altered before they approved it on July 9, 1868. The Fourteenth Amendment created corporate personhood, which is a legal fiction. The choice of the word “person” arises from the way that the drafters worded the Fourteenth Amendment. Eric Foner wrote, “This idea of birthright citizenship, later enshrined in the Fourteenth Amendment, was a truly radical departure from the traditions of American life.”<sup>[1605]</sup> The Fourteenth Amendment made every citizen a federal citizen and accordingly, the federal government maintains all of our birth certificates in the District of Columbia. We are essentially commodities in a giant hedge fund.

Southern whites and northern Democrats criticized the Fourteenth Amendment, which authorizes the Federal Government to meddle between a state and its citizens for any plausible reason. Devised by a socialist, it expanded Washington's authority and strength. Republican congressmen were also fully aware of the impact of the revolutionary Civil Rights Bill of 1866. Senator Lot M. Morrill of Maine, in talking about it said, “I admit that this species of legislation is absolutely revolutionary. However, are we not in the midst of a revolution? This civil and political revolution has changed the fundamental principles of our Government.”<sup>[1606]</sup>

Congress purportedly created the Fourteenth Amendment, incorporating the Bill of Rights, to assure the political rights, grant citizenship and facilitate the cultural assimilation of recently released slaves. Manipulative well-paid lawyers working for industrialists hijacked this law, with built-in loopholes, supposedly ratified on July 9, 1868. However, a quarter of the states rejected the unconstitutional amendment. Government officials deprived eleven states of their equal suffrage in the Senate, which is in violation of Article V. These officials excluded the political leaders of those states from the deliberation and decision process regarding the proposed Fourteenth Amendment.

The Union installed new state governments, for more efficient governance, that were generally Republican in nature but composed of political coalitions of blacks, northern carpetbaggers and southern scalawags. The imposition of government officials in former enemy states (or countries) in conjunction with military occupation and the aggressive re-education of the population became a pattern for the future. Many southern residents viewed these installed governments with hostility and resentment.<sup>[1607]</sup> They especially disliked the activities of the Freedmen's Bureau, an agency that Congress established on March 3, 1865 in order to feed, protect, and assist in the education of the newly emancipated blacks. This bitterness led to formation of such organizations as the Ku Klux Klan. By 1877, the Democrat Party resumed power in most of the southern states.

By 1886, lawyers perverted and exploited the law to grant "personhood" to corporations, artificial entities, in order to shelter the owners and their assets from culpability. It further enabled them to ignore reasonable environmental regulations and ethical standards while consolidating worldwide power and influence. The courts grant a special legal status and privileges to corporations not given to ordinary unincorporated business or groups of individuals. Corporations now have inalienable rights, or constitutional rights, like people, despite their artificial nature. From 1819 until 1886, the wealthy elite attempted to use the Federal Government, especially the courts, to get their corporations out from under the control of the states and their citizens. Because corporations dominated U.S. business, they soon began to dominate the politicians, lawyers and the courts. Many corporate moguls systematically bribed members of Congress. Many of the Supreme Court judges were former corporate lawyers who also entered politics as appointees or through manipulated elections.

## **Merging Socialism and Christianity**

John Robison, in his book, which he wrote in 1798, defines some of the objectives of the Illuminati by quoting one of their social engineering goals, "We have to struggle with pedantry, with intolerance, with divines and statesmen, and above all, princes and priests are in our way. Men are unfit as they are, and must be formed; each class must be the school of trial for the next."<sup>[1608]</sup> In other words, the elite view us as guinea pigs.

In the eighteenth century, intellectual forces, influenced by the Pietist movement, a faction within Lutheranism, in northern Prussia, altered German society more than economic conditions. The Enlightenment in Britain and France had a German independent counterpart in the Aufklärung, which began earlier. The origin of the German Enlightenment was largely religious and emanated from places like the Pietist University of Halle from reformers like August Hermann Francke who distorted traditional theology, calling for religious liberalism.<sup>[1609]</sup>

Calvinist Timothy Dwight (1752-1817) was the son of a merchant, a Yale graduate and Yale's eighth president. He had strong connections to New York's wealthiest families through his 1777 marriage to the daughter of a New York merchant and banker, Benjamin Woolsey. Dwight headed the Federalist Party of Connecticut, proponents of a big federal government and a central bank. He was the leader of the evangelical New Divinity faction of Congregationalism — composed of Connecticut's emerging commercial elite who opposed the emerging equality of the common people. In Boston, as early as 1784, the business community was disrupting town meetings in an attempt to replace them by professionally managed meetings, supposedly to enhance public safety. The elite feel they are more qualified to control the affairs of the remainder of society, which certainly does not include self-government.<sup>[1610]</sup>

Timothy Dwight's brother was Theodore Dwight (1764-1846), a lawyer and journalist and a leader in the Federalist Party. He was a member of Congress in 1806-1807 and the secretary of the Hartford Convention in 1814. He was the editor of the *Hartford Mirror* and the *Albany Daily Advertiser*. He

moved to New York City and founded the *New York City Daily Advertiser* in 1817. Aaron Burr was a cousin. Vice President Aaron Burr, in alliance with the Massachusetts Tories, thought that the United States should have remained a British colony and attempted to make that a reality. Burr's cousin and law partner, Theodore Dwight devised some political moves to destroy the unity of the United States.

Timothy Dwight, New England's consummate moralist, encouraged by protégé Reverend Lyman Beecher, created a national evangelical movement to re-church America, in conjunction with compulsory education. Timothy Dwight's *The Nature and Danger of Infidel Philosophy* (1798) helped influence the Second Great Awakening (1790-1840s). The historian Berk says that Dwight contrived the Second Great Awakening, which began at Yale, and then Dwight's students led the awakening as it spread out from the campus.<sup>[1611]</sup> Dwight's philosophy called for a major socialization of American religion, driven by ministers like Charles Grandison Finney and Lyman Beecher who promoted evangelical participation in social issues. Beecher was the father of writer, Harriet Beecher Stowe.

Regarding the French Revolution, Heinrich Heine (1797-1856) said, "When all is said and done, it was hatred for the Church that caused the French Revolution ... The throne had been destroyed because it protected the altar." I wish to borrow Heine's statement and using creative liberties, apply it to another revolution, Lincoln's War. My version – When all is said and done, it was hatred for Southern Christianity that caused Lincoln's War...they destroyed the South as it was the nation's Christian altar.

To facilitate the socialization of religion, especially in the north, Dwight helped found the Andover Theological Seminary (1807), the American Bible Society, and the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions which had a particular missionary (merchant) interest in China. In 1829, church officials sent missionaries to the "heathen" in China. Its original mission was to India in 1816 then work among the Cherokees and Choctaws in 1818, the Hawaiian Islands in 1819, Syria in 1823, Persia in 1833, India's Madura District in 1834, Zululand in 1835, Japan in 1869, Spain, Mexico and Austria in 1872 and Central Africa in 1880.<sup>[1612]</sup>

Henry Edwin Dwight (1797-1832), youngest son of Timothy Dwight, praised the new quasi-religious teacher seminaries in Prussia where school officials screened prospective teachers for correct attitudes toward the State.<sup>[1613]</sup> Henry Dwight, after a short stint at Andover Theological Seminary, studied at the Universities of Göttingen and Berlin from 1824 to 1828. On May 1, 1828, Henry and his brother, Sereno (Yale 1803) opened the New Haven Gymnasium for boys, a mile away from Yale.<sup>[1614]</sup>

In 1849, Members of Skull and Bones initiated Dwight's namesake grandson, Timothy Dwight (1828-1916); thereafter he studied at the Universities of Berlin and Bonn (1856-1858).<sup>[1615]</sup> He became Professor of Sacred Literature at Yale Divinity School from July 1858 until 1886, and then became the twelfth president of Yale. In 1869, the Rockefeller-financed Chicago Theological Seminary gave Dwight the honorary degree of Doctor of Divinity. By 1870, Skull and Bones controlled policy at Yale. Every president since Timothy Dwight has been a member of Skull and Bones, known as the Brotherhood of Death, or at the very least, has been closely associated with this very secretive society.<sup>[1616]</sup>

McCormick Theological Seminary, established 1829, is one of eleven schools of theology of the Presbyterian Church (USA), named after the Protestant magnate Cyrus McCormick. The seminary shares a campus with the Lutheran School of Theology at Chicago, bordering the campus of the University of Chicago in Chicago, Illinois. McCormick directed funds from his successful business into the McCormick Theological Seminary. John D. Rockefeller helped support the University of Chicago Divinity School, established 1891, a seminary that authorities fully integrated into the host university, which he also funded.

Arthur Tappan and Lewis Tappan, wealthy New York merchants and co-founders of the *New York Journal*

*of Commerce* and founders of the Mercantile Agency, a forerunner of Dun and Bradstreet, founded Lane Theological Seminary. The philanthropic Tappan brothers embraced temperance and supported the abolition of slavery through the establishment of theological seminaries and educational institutions, which helped them to decide to partially finance Ohio's Oberlin College, founded in 1833 by two Presbyterian ministers, John Shipherd and Philo P. Stewart. They also funded Kenyon College, founded in 1824 by Episcopal Bishop Philander Chase (1775-1852), the uncle and caretaker of Salmon P. Chase. The Tappans co-founded the American Anti-Slavery Society, which began supporting women's suffrage and feminism in 1840. The Tappan brothers also founded the American and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society in 1840, and the American Missionary Society in 1846.

Lewis and Arthur Tappan joined the American Bible Society, the American Tract Society, the New York City Mission and Tract Society, and the Young Men's Christian Association. In the 1850s, the Tappans and others were seeking to enlarge the role of the state in religion.<sup>[1617]</sup>

In 1847, New York Unitarian minister Harvard -educated Henry Whitney Bellows founded a Unitarian newspaper, the *Christian Inquirer*. In 1849, he said, "There is no rightful authority which is not in a sense divine." New England Unitarian ministers elevated and glorified both Lincoln and the state. On April 20, 1861, Bellows preached at All Souls on *The State and the Nation, Sacred to Christian Citizens*. In 1863, when opposition to Lincoln was growing, Bellows published a pamphlet, *Unconditional Loyalty*, in which he declared that a national political leader was a "sacred person." Bellows was one of the loudest advocates in the suppression of growing opposition to Republican policies and their total war.<sup>[1618]</sup> Bellows justified the use of military or official violence against rioters.<sup>[1619]</sup> He said at the culmination of the war, "The state is indeed divine, as being the great incarnation of a nation's rights, privileges, honor, and life."<sup>[1620]</sup>

New England Unitarian ministers elevated and glorified both Lincoln and the state. Reverend Bellows said at the culmination of the war, "The state is indeed divine, as being the great incarnation of a nation's rights, privileges, honor, and life."<sup>[1621]</sup> Henry Ward Beecher (1813-1887) was one of the Union's most effective pro-war preachers. He inflamed his parishioners with fervor for the war. He wrote articles, published his sermons, and edited a prominent wartime periodical. He met with Lincoln to discuss war policies, and whether the president embraced Beecher's ideas or not, Beecher supported the president. He was, like his famous sister and best friend, Harriet Beecher Stowe, a gifted propagandist. He was the principle speaker at Fort Sumter in April 1865 when the Union ceremoniously reclaimed the fort.<sup>[1622]</sup>

Connecticut native, Morris Ketchum Jessup (1830-1908), a Pilgrims Society member, a banker and philanthropist, presided over the New York Chamber of Commerce (1899-1907) and was president of the American Sunday School Union, founded in 1817, and the American Museum of Natural History, established in 1869. He was a trustee of the Union Theological Seminary, established in 1836, the Peabody Education Fund, established by George Peabody in 1867, and was treasurer of the John F. Slater Fund for the Education of Freedmen, created in 1882, which later became the Rockefeller Foundation, chartered in 1913. He was a member of the Rockefellers General Education Board, created by John D. Rockefeller and Frederick T. Gates in 1902.<sup>[1623]</sup> In 1905, Czar Nicholas II knighted him for his philanthropic work.

On November 14, 1861, Jessup helped organize the United States Christian Commission. He helped found the New York City chapter of the Young Men's Christian Association and served as its president in 1872. Individuals established the first YMCA in Boston on December 29, 1844. Within eleven years, the YMCA had become an international movement. George Williams (1821-1905) established the original quasi-Masonic YMCA on June 6, 1844 in London, England. He had seen the unhealthy social conditions in London because of the industrial revolution and did for the YMCA what Lord Baden-Powell had done for scouting. The Order of the Rag is a secret society within the YMCA, an allegedly Christian institute.

Queen Victoria knighted George Williams in 1894. After his death in 1905, artists designed a stained glass window for the nave of the Westminster Abbey to commemorate his life. They buried Sir George Williams in St. Paul's Cathedral, the Anglican cathedral on Ludgate Hill, in The City of London, the financial capital of the world.

Top leaders in the Pilgrims Society traditionally invite the Archbishop of Canterbury and the head of the Church of England, and the Episcopal Bishops of New York to fill senior positions in the society. Bishop Henry Codman Potter (1835-1908), the head of the Episcopal Diocese of New York (1887-1908), was

very interested in social reform and politics. Potter regularly journeyed to London to preach at Canterbury Cathedral, St. Paul's Cathedral, at Westminster Abbey. Potter was the president of the Pilgrims Society (1903-1907). Members of the Pilgrims Society staff St. Paul's Cathedral.<sup>[1624]</sup>

The Pilgrims Society and Masonic offshoots like the YMCA, Elks and Rotary Clubs are philosophically integrated sects within the Masonic framework. Though the many organizations and sects are different, some of the rituals, objectives and idiosyncrasies have commonality. Many are identical to Freemasonry. Pope Leo XIII wrote, "Let us remember that Christianity and Freemasonry are essentially incompatible, to such an extent, that to become united with one means being divorced from the other."<sup>[1625]</sup> Pope Benedict, on November 5, 1920, warned against such organizations as the YMCA and other similar sects, while different in name, apply similar Masonic principles. Pope Benedict XV (1914-1922) stated, "The YMCA intends to purify and spread a more perfect knowledge of real life, placing itself above all Churches and outside of any religious jurisdiction." He said, in his letter of November 5, 1920, that the YMCA is fundamentally Masonic.<sup>[1626]</sup>

Leading theologians and prestigious seminaries promoted an agenda of progressive reform and international expansion. John D. Rockefeller and J. P. Morgan wholly supported the theologians and seminaries as they set America's moral course at home and abroad. Progressive reform was compatible with Woodrow Wilson's vision of building a new world order. The membership of the Student Volunteer Movement for Foreign Missions, founded in 1886, increased as its representatives recruited college and university students in the United States for missionary service abroad.<sup>[1627]</sup> Arthur Tappan Pierson (1837-1911), named after abolitionist Arthur Tappan, initiated the Student Volunteer Movement. Pierson, the author of numerous books, was determined to evangelize the world. Librarians have housed the records of the Student Volunteer Movement in the Yale Divinity School Library.

As early as 1890, Socialism was well entrenched in all of the major seminaries by American theologians trained in England and Germany. One of these was a man named Walter Rauschenbusch (1861-1918). In 1885, he graduated from Rochester Theological Seminary, indoctrinated in the tenets of Illuminism — a philosophy that substitutes faith in man for faith in God. His father August Rauschenbusch, a Baptist minister and German immigrant (1846), taught at the Rochester Theological Seminary. August, an ardent abolitionist, was from a long line of Lutheran preachers.<sup>[1628]</sup> In 1892, Rauschenbusch, with others, organized the Brotherhood of the Kingdom to promote socialism, starting in the churches.<sup>[1629]</sup> Walter Rauschenbusch declared, "If ever Socialism is to succeed, it cannot succeed in an irreligious country. It must start in the churches."<sup>[1630]</sup>

Society is full of inequality, either deliberately imposed or inherent, making it a highly viable issue for the elite to manipulate for their own benefit. As mentioned elsewhere in this book, the function of equalization, while sounding desirable, is to level everyone to the lowest status. Each individual inherently has an unequal amount of skill, intelligence, talent, and personality, emotional and physical characteristics that are not dependent on environment or economic situation but are inherent. Individual inequality is a normal phenomenon. However, everyone warrants fairness and equality before the law. The elite who use both left/right political philosophies to impose tyranny easily exploit sincere individuals seeking to assist the poor and the downtrodden, or the poor and the downtrodden.

With the industrial revolution, 1780s through the 1870s, large corporations, coast-to-coast travel and wealthy industrialists — people like Andrew Carnegie and John D. Rockefeller set a new standard. Americans suddenly accepted a new ideal for personal success. A dog-eat-dog mentality replaced personal virtues, such as thrift, diligence, and honesty. Individuals acquired the stealthy ability to secure natural resources, both natural and human, for personal wealth. Many individuals then fostered the virtues of shrewdness, sophistication and specialization. Darwinism, for the more progressive Americans,

replaced traditional values and beliefs.<sup>[1631]</sup>

Nikolai Lenin, the Marxist Communist who communized the Russian nation in the years following the Russian Revolution of 1917, wrote, “We have to use any ruse, dodge, trick, cunning, unlawful method, concealment, and veiling of the truth.”<sup>[1632]</sup> On December 2, 1908, the Federal Council of Churches adopted the Social Creed of the Churches, written by Communist-leaning Harry F. Ward, an English protégé of Walter Rauschenbusch, earlier submitted to Nikolai Lenin.

Karl Marx, a member of an Illuminati front organization called the League of the Just, partly financed by the Rothschilds, advocated class warfare through economic, political, moral and spiritual changes. He encouraged the abolition of the family and advocated that the state should raise children. He said, “We must war against all prevailing ideas of religion...the idea of God is the keynote of a perverted civilization.”

## **Alaska, the Bargain of the Century**



The international bankers had no control over Russia, because that nation had rejected their imposition of a central bank. Lincoln, looking for a European ally sought the assistance of Russia’s huge fleet, which pledged its support to Lincoln prior to the war.<sup>[1633]</sup> Lincoln’s Emancipation Proclamation possibly encouraged the Russians to send their fleet to America as a show of force. The Russians could relate to it in as much as their Czar emancipated the serfs with a comparable document in 1861 in a humanitarian gesture. Lincoln hoped this show of solidarity would persuade the Russians to support their government when it assisted the Union.

Czar Alexander II directed his navy to sail for the ports of New York and San Francisco and put France and England on notice that it would be wise not to come into the war in support of the South. In October 1861, officials in Baltimore specially invited the Russian ship officers to partake of Baltimore’s hospitality and praised the Russians for abstaining from supporting the “rebellion.” The Czar had instructed his officers to take orders from Lincoln, be ready to fight and, if necessary, destroy the enemy’s commercial shipping lines.<sup>[1634]</sup> The Russian fleet under Admiral Liviski arrived in New York harbor on September 24, 1863, and anchored there. The Russian Pacific fleet, under Admiral Popov, arrived in San Francisco on October 12. This show of force caused England and France to think twice about even considering assistance to the South.<sup>[1635]</sup> The fleet did not come cheap. Lincoln agreed to pay \$7.2 million for the Russian’s services. Andrew Johnson would become responsible for that payment.

Johnson had no constitutional authority to pay money to a foreign government so he authorized Secretary of State William Seward to arrange for the purchase of Alaska from the Russians for \$7.2 million.<sup>[1636]</sup> Researcher and writer, the late Sherman Skolnick suggested that it was a 99-year lease rather than an outright purchase. Whatever, it was, Seward successfully negotiated the price and the arrangements, completed on March 30, 1867. The Russian fleet possibly prevented the nation from going to war with England and France. Alaska was more than twice the land mass of Texas, 586,412 square miles, at a cost of about two cents per acre. People referred to the purchase as “Seward’s folly” as they viewed it as a piece of worthless real estate instead of a very fortuitous purchase. Author Lindsey Williams maintains

that Alaska's North Slope has as much crude oil as Saudi Arabia.<sup>[1637]</sup> On March 18, 2005, Governor Frank H. Murkowski said that there is enough oil on the North Slope to supply the entire U.S. for 200 years.<sup>[1638]</sup>

Seward believed that we should not stop our imperialistic endeavors with Alaska. He thought that America should take possession of the Danish West Indies, Panama, Samaná and Hawaii. He established unofficial influence in the Hawaiian Islands, Japan, and China. On August 28, 1867, the U.S. formally claimed ownership of the Book Islands, which Captain N. C. Middlebrooks discovered on July 5, 1859. Officials called them the Midway Islands or the Midway Atoll – because they are strategically located halfway between North America and Asia.

Just before the battle of Appomattox, Secretary Seward, per Lincoln's approval, initiated discussions with the Danish government in order to purchase St. Thomas and St. John, part of the Danish West Indies, for use as naval stations in the West Indies. After three years of pressure by the U.S. State Department, the Danish government conceded to sell the islands for \$7,500,000 per a treaty executed in 1867. However, the Senate failed to ratify the treaty. After pressing a reluctant government to agree to the sale, the U.S., at the last moment refused to accept delivery.<sup>[1639]</sup> They finally consummated the deal by a treaty on March 31, 1917. The U.S. government purchased St. Thomas, St. John and St. Croix for \$25 million, as a defensive strategy for control over the Caribbean and the Panama Canal during World War I.

It was not just Seward who believed in the expansion of American commercial interests in China and elsewhere. In his State of the Union address on December 6, 1864, Lincoln said, "The rebellion which has so long been flagrant in China has at last been suppressed, with the cooperating good offices of this Government and of the other Western commercial States. The judicial consular establishment there has become very difficult and onerous, and it will need legislative revision to adapt it to the extension of our commerce and to the more intimate intercourse, which has been instituted with the Government and people of that vast Empire. China seems to be accepting with hearty good will the conventional laws which regulate commercial and social intercourse among the Western nations."<sup>[1640]</sup>

Lincoln mentioned Japan in his remarks on December 6, 1864, "Owing to the peculiar situation of Japan and the anomalous form of its Government, the action of that Empire in performing treaty stipulations is inconstant and capricious. Nevertheless, good progress has been affected by the Western powers, moving with enlightened concert. Our own pecuniary claims have been allowed or put in course of settlement, and the inland sea has been reopened to commerce. There is reason also to believe that these proceedings have increased rather than diminished the friendship of Japan toward the United States."<sup>[1641]</sup>

After the discovery of gold in Alaska and the resulting gold rush of 1897 to 1898, Britain and the U.S. formulated the Alaska Boundary Commission to determine the boundary between Canada and the U.S. in Alaska. The commission composed of British and American members concluded their findings in 1903. The Pilgrims Society of London celebrated the committee's conclusions with a lavish dinner in their honor held at the Claridge Hotel on Thursday, October 15, 1903. One of the special guests was Elihu Root, U.S. Secretary of War. The Foreign Secretary, Lord Lansdowne, proposed the health of the Anglo-Saxon race, proclaiming "the United States and Great Britain as the two great branches of the race."<sup>[1642]</sup>

## **The Pledge of Obedience**

Catastrophic circumstances in America, such as Lincoln's War, World War I and II or most recently, the horrific events of September 11, 2001, function as transitory events. Members of Congress and the powers behind the scenes quickly pass legislation that the traumatized citizens would never accept under ordinary circumstances. In an environment of insecurity, chaos and uncertainty, citizens invariably look to government officials for solutions to the calamity that has befallen them. This is incongruous given that many of these politicians are verifiably corrupt. Yet, many citizens repeatedly place unwarranted trust in

these same unscrupulous characters. The newly enacted legislation consistently imposes restrictions on the citizens, obviously the target of the events of that day while it increases governmental power coupled with more stringent law enforcement.

Almost exactly 150 years ago, as I write this, the calculated chaos that emerged because of Lincoln's War predictably fractured America. Officials opportunistically used that cultural rupture to compel citizens, literally at gunpoint, to accept the centralization of government power in Washington at the expense of states' rights. If the South surrendered and abolished slavery, that region of the country could only return to the Union if a certain percentage of the southern citizens swore a loyalty oath.<sup>[1643]</sup> On December 8, 1863, a year and a half *before* the end of the war, Lincoln confidently issued the Proclamation of Amnesty. People referred to it as the Ten Percent Plan of Reconstruction. It read, "A rebellion now exists whereby the loyal state governments of several states have for a long time been subverted, and many persons have committed, and are now guilty of, treason against the United States." Southerners, designated as "treasonous," were subject to the confiscation of their private property. Lincoln said if just 10% of the people who voted in 1860 within each state would take a loyalty oath to the federal government then that state could "reestablish a state government which shall be republican, and in nowise contravening said oath."<sup>[1644]</sup>

When the elite allowed the poor to cast a vote, they restricted them to local issues only, and not significant national issues. Who actually comprised the 10% of the voters who decided the fate of the entire southern population? Could it have been the same elite group who provoked the war, managed to survive and eat well while the poor and the middle class lost their land, their rights and starved through the war? Could it have been that same elite crowd who paid a substitute to fight in their behalf while the poor left their families to fight and die in a war not of their choice and making? Author David Williams points out that while federal officials promised freedom and equality, the assurance of emancipation; they were forcing blacks into "labor contracts" and whites into "debt slavery" at the point of a bayonet. Such actions obliterated any pretense of freedom. It was still slavery, camouflaged under a softer name.<sup>[1645]</sup>

The Radical Republicans in Congress felt that the demands placed upon the South were too lenient and favored an even stronger more ironclad oath. Lincoln said that those who participated in the "existing rebellion" were "guilty of treason." The government would restore their property, except their slaves, only by swearing an allegiance oath to the Union. Various individuals proposed suitable oaths, some more severe than the one they finally chose.<sup>[1646]</sup> The federal government compelled the vanquished Southerners to swear allegiance to an escalating powerful centralized government. Officials used additional clever mechanisms to secure strict loyalty and emotionally unite the remainder of an inherently diverse population of independent farmers, people who had left or lost their land and were now urban factory workers and recent immigrants. The government wanted every citizen to unite under a common purpose. Gradually, the government suppressed individuality, a natural and acceptable consequence of one's lifestyle, experiences and opportunities. Certain Individuals with questionable motives used the concept of exceptionalism, that idea of being the chosen people, only to garner support for a more powerful centralized government. Persuasive individuals used deceptive devices such as emotion-packed words and phrases, personified flags, powerful symbols, soul-stirring anthems, and even religious-oriented hymns.

Michael A. Hoffman II maintains that flattery is the first principle of mind control. He wrote, "This is the first secret of mass mind control and can be observed as the foundation stone of virtually every false religion, party, cult, philosophy, system and training." The American masses believe that they are "free" and "highly-educated" when in fact we are debt slaves to the demonic, greedy money powers.<sup>[1647]</sup> It was true following Lincoln's War and it is even more applicable now. People ingrain American

exceptionalism, a stepsister of arrogance and self-righteousness, through symbolism and songs that promote our self-importance. Radio host, Michael Medved, a pro-war propagandist, in an example of this exclusivity, reminds his listeners on a daily basis that the U.S. is “the greatest nation on God’s green earth.”

Early songs that promoted patriotism, the last refuge of a scoundrel, include *John Brown’s Body*, a famous Union Army marching song that had nothing whatsoever to do with the abolitionist but was a tune someone adapted from the American camp meeting movement of the 1800s. Julia Ward Howe, a fervent abolitionist, wrote lyrics for the tune in November 1861 that editors close to her family published and popularized in *The Atlantic Monthly* on February 1, 1862 as *The Battle Hymn of the Republic*. Abolitionists Harriet Beecher Stowe, Ralph Waldo Emerson, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, Oliver Wendell Holmes, Sr., John Greenleaf Whittier and James Russell Lowell co-founded the Boston-based magazine in 1857. With the exception of Stowe and Whittier, they either attended or taught at Harvard University.

Howe’s lyrics subtly associate Christianity with killing and warfare. This song promotes the idea that war is a Christian’s effort to rid the world of evildoers. Christians are supposed to eliminate the evil within, not kill evildoers targeted by ethically challenged political leaders. Author John Remington Graham wrote that after the Union soldiers had torched Atlanta on November 11, 1864, per their scorched earth policy during William Tecumseh Sherman’s murderous March to the Sea, a band played *The Battle Hymn of the Republic* as defenseless women and children, now homeless, fled into the countryside.<sup>[1648]</sup> Sherman writes in his memoirs, “Never before or since have I heard the chorus of Glory, glory, hallelujah! done with more spirit, or in better harmony of time and place.”<sup>[1649]</sup>

In 1865, Cambridge-educated Sabine Baring-Gould wrote *Onward Christian Soldiers*, another song that links Christianity and mass killing. The music was from a famous Freemason marching hymn.<sup>[1650]</sup> Sir Arthur S. Sullivan, an English composer who studied at the Leipzig Conservatory composed the music. He was a Freemason and the Grand Organist in the Grand Lodge of England.<sup>[1651]</sup> Nearly eighty years later, on August 14, 1941, warmongers, Winston Churchill and Franklin D. Roosevelt, both Freemasons, met on the battleship *HMS Prince of Wales* to formalize the Atlantic Charter, a blueprint for shaping the world after yet another cataclysmic war. Afterwards, Prime Minister Churchill chose *Onward, Christian Soldiers*, a very subtle musical selection to connect Christianity to warfare.

Soul-stirring lyrics set to inspiring music constitute a very powerful medium, which composers use to introduce and ingrain desired emotions. Music can inspire, instruct and indoctrinate in a very indirect, unobtrusive way and has long been used to impact individuals in both positive and negative ways. Music kindles predictable emotions and effectively stimulates or alters one’s disposition. A movie without background music does not arouse the desired emotions sought by filmmakers; think about it! Considering music’s impact, it is important to evaluate how and why producers and directors use music the way they do in particular circumstances. Is the song or music appropriate to the occasion? What motivates a questionable musical choice and who made that choice?

Francis Scott Key, a Freemason and brother-in-law to Roger B. Taney, then Chief Justice of the U.S. Supreme Court, wrote the poem that became even more compelling and influential after someone set it to music, *The Star Spangled Banner*, with its rockets’ red glare and bombs bursting in air, reminiscent of the shock and awe explosions of the world wars and in Baghdad in March 2003. John Stafford Smith, some years earlier, wrote the music that Key used for his poem. Smith, an English Freemason, belonged to the Inverness Lodge #4 in London. The music was adapted from *To Anacreon in Heaven*, a popular drinking song in the local pubs.<sup>[1652]</sup>

At one time, the Irish Masonic Orphans’ Home used the music as their song. The Navy adopted the song

for official use in 1889. President Wilson ordered the song to be played on military occasions. Congress decreed it as our national anthem on March 3, 1931, signed into law by President Herbert Hoover, a longtime Rothschild asset. Since World War II and more especially since 1980, individuals perform the anthem prior to sports events, especially before the beginning of most MLS, NBA, NFL, MLB and NHL games. It is also part of the pre-race ceremony in every NASCAR race. A huge enthusiastic audience, a bigger convergence of people than in most other settings, is the perfect environment to generate patriotic fervor through the emotionalism of the national anthem. It becomes a collective experience, which psychologically binds the masses to the will of the government.

There is similarity and interchangeability between sports and military rhetoric. Author Jaap Kooijman points out that coaches often use military metaphors to plan strategies. Military officials, politicians and journalists often refer to sports when discussing military operations. Kooijman wrote, “a national identity can be reinforced through the patriotic sentiments of war and sports events can bring national communities together in patriotism and nationalism.” People have established a verbal connection between militarism and sports. Thus, “without any resistance or commentary,” individuals, not inadvertently, inextricably merged sports and military supremacy.<sup>[1653]</sup>

The U.S. Flag Code states that during the presentation of the national anthem, when the flag is displayed, all, except those in uniform, should stand at attention facing the flag with the right hand over the heart, a renewal of one’s allegiance. This is sinisterly similar to the sign of the hidden hand of the men of Jahbulon, a symbolic or ceremonial name, used as a password by Royal Arch Masons, which men execute by placing the right hand inside his jacket, indicative of his oath of allegiance.<sup>[1654]</sup> Many, some of whom are/were Freemasons including Karl Marx, Napoleon, Lenin, Salomon Rothschild, Theodore Roosevelt, Frederic Auguste Bartholdi, William Tecumseh Sherman and hundreds of others, have exhibited the Jahbulon gesture.

Religious-like devotion to one’s nation is not spontaneous but politicians, social scientists, theologians, financiers, and an expanding jingoistic press methodically manage it. Author Guido Giacomo Preparata argues that American patriotism during World War II and “gung-ho love for one’s country” was “not love at all but the readied call to hurt the enemy whoever he was, wherever he lurked, anyhow, any time” in a “wave of this induced collective dementia” and a “new idolatry of the red, white, and blue, American Pride, and the Star Spangled Banner.”<sup>[1655]</sup>

People relinquish individualism in favor of comfortable conformity and herd-instinct consensus, seduced by waving flags, images of soaring eagles, marching bands, parades of faceless uniformed people, vows and pledges, and salutes to supposed superiors. Experts, behind-the-scenes, carefully manage group thinking. Edward Bernays, nephew of Sigmund Freud, was the intuitive, manipulative father of the public relations or professional propaganda industry. He always harnessed the private interests of his elite clients to public interests – getting people to buy or act in a certain way that financially benefitted his patrons. The best way to alter society is to finance and control trusted institutions like the churches, the schools, and persuasive and influential theologians and educators.

## **The Socialist Bellamy Cousins**

In 1880, Francis Bellamy, a Freemason, graduated from the Rochester Theological Seminary and became a minister. In November 1899, John D. Rockefeller gave \$150,000 dollars to this seminary, headed by a Rockefeller crony, Augustus Hopkins Strong. This was just one of numerous donations that Rockefeller made to this institution.<sup>[1656]</sup> He gave \$90,000 dollars on January 2, 1901.<sup>[1657]</sup> Bellamy, a Northern Baptist, was an ardent Christian Socialist who preached socialism, rejected the bible, and denied the deity of Jesus.<sup>[1658]</sup> He visited the South for a brief period, observed that residents were closely tied to traditional

Christianity, and showed little hope of adopting progressive ideas like evolution.<sup>[1659]</sup> The South's connection to Christianity was one of its biggest distinguishing factors as opposed to the North's materialistic, socialistic mentality. Perhaps that mentality helped to make the region a target for the bankers.

Edward Bellamy, Francis' cousin, studied Prussian Socialism and language in Dresden in 1868-1869 and visited Germany again in 1887. He wrote *Looking Backward, 2000-1887*, published in January 1888. Editors translated his book into over twenty languages, including German. It sold millions of copies in America, second only to Marx's *Das Kapital* (1867). People viewed his book as the most influential book published in the previous fifty years. He promoted a gilded-age, government-imposed utopian alternative to the money powers and corporatism.<sup>[1660]</sup> In 1890-1891, devotees formed at least 165 "Bellamy Clubs" throughout America. Members wanted to create a classless society and crusaded for a government takeover of the economy as Bellamy envisioned.<sup>[1661]</sup> Interestingly, George H. W. Bush, with similar goals, wrote a book exactly 100 years later entitled *Looking Forward*.

Columbia University-educated Daniel De Leon, newspaper editor, Marxist theoretician, and leading figure in the U.S. Socialist Labor Party applauded Bellamy's efforts. Julius A. Wayland of Kansas, the editor of the party's leading national newspaper, *Appeal to Reason* wrote, "Bellamy was one of the few men who had not lived in vain, since *Looking Backward* popularized socialism, made it interesting, and started millions to thinking along lines entirely new to them." Eugene V. Debs praised his "wonderful work because he brought to the limited intelligence of ...the average practical man, a picture of the practical working of socialism." In 1898, the Social Democratic Party passed a resolution affirming that Bellamy's work was the most effective undertaking that anyone had ever accomplished for socialism in the U.S. The French socialist, Jean Jaurès considered *Looking Backward* "an American masterpiece" that did "wonders toward dissipating hostile ignorance against our ideas."<sup>[1662]</sup>

Bellamy's novel is the story of Julian West, a young Bostonian who awakes in 2000, from a hypnotically induced sleep, which began in 1887. The novel describes America's future as a regimented worker's paradise where everyone has equal incomes and are appropriately educated in patriotic government-run schools and then, following universal military service, are drafted into the country's "industrial army" at the age of twenty-one where they serve in state-assigned jobs, out of a possible "two or three hundred diverse trades and avocations."<sup>[1663]</sup> West perceived, on waking, that the nation's wealth, the production and distribution of resources was now in the possession and control of a few people. The state, in the beginning of the twentieth century, without violence or bloodshed, had seized jurisdiction over all industrial enterprises and had combined them into one gigantic trust, which the government managed for the benefit of all citizens.<sup>[1664]</sup>

Edward Bellamy founded Boston's first Nationalist Club. In January 1889, the club members adopted their Declaration of Principles, which incorporated Helena Blavatsky's mystical Theosophist doctrines and Sidney Webb's Fabian Socialist economic theories.<sup>[1665]</sup> In April 1891, Francis Bellamy, Vice President of the Christian Society of Socialists, an auxiliary of Bellamy's Nationalist movement, worked for Daniel Ford's Boston-based *Youth's Companion* magazine. He worked with Ford's nephew, James Bailey Upham, a Knights Templar, the equivalent to a 33rd Degree Scottish Rite Mason.<sup>[1666]</sup> Upham was a member of the Converse Lodge in Malden, Massachusetts.<sup>[1667]</sup> They increased the magazine's circulation by selling inexpensive U.S. flags to public schools, institutions already influenced by socialist John Dewey. In support of the schoolhouse flag movement, they intended to place a flag above every school. In conjunction with this flag distribution program, Bellamy chaired the National Public School Celebration for Columbus Day under the direction of the National Education Association (NEA), later under the control of the Rockefeller Foundation. Officials initially designed the flag to display at federal

installations. Because of the contemporary Department of Education, officials consider all public schools as authorized federal institutions.

To augment the schoolhouse flag movement and incorporate socialism, as viewed by Edward Bellamy, his illustrious cousin Francis wrote a pledge in which each student pledged his/her total devotion to the state. He published his creation in the magazine on September 8, 1892. It read, “I Pledge allegiance to my Flag and the Republic for which it stands, one nation indivisible, with liberty and Justice for all.” While pondering on this oath, he related to friends, “... with the meaning of the War Between the States; with the aspiration of the people...It is the concise political word for the Nation – the One Nation which the War Between the States was fought to prove. To make that One Nation idea clear, we must specify that it is indivisible...”<sup>[1668]</sup> The Bellamys enthusiastically admired Lincoln for his aggressive warfare against the rebellious South.

Karl Marx suggested that the very first objective in setting up a communist nation was in demanding and establishing “a single and indivisible republic.”<sup>[1669]</sup> Marx’s use of the word “republic,” actually means a socialistic democracy. The “indivisible republic” was the overriding principle of the Illuminated French Jacobinism – the “nation une et indivisible.” Essentially, advocates for a strong central government forcefully seized power from local government entities and transferred it to federal tyrants, in an undeviating and permanent – indivisible entity, a power, they would never again relinquish to the individual sovereign states and their citizenry.

In 1892, after the media popularization of Bellamy’s *Looking Backward*, the enlightened cousins discussed Universal Brotherhood, an Illuminati objective. That prompted Francis to embody the ideals of *equality* and *fraternity* into the pledge, ideas that people carried to America from the French Revolution. He incorporated the phrase “with liberty and justice for all.”<sup>[1670]</sup> Upham and Bellamy particularly wanted to emphasize the word allegiance – they wanted the pledge to be a heartfelt vow, not just a salute. The Bellamy cousins venerated Lincoln and his violent revolution so the word “allegiance” was significant and essential. Southerners negatively associated the pledge with the “oath of allegiance,” a vow they were compelled to swear to the invaders who destroyed their culture and their very existence. Others, including church leaders, also had misgivings about swearing an oath. The Catholic Church had serious qualms about swearing an oath, one of the issues they also had with Freemasonry.<sup>[1671]</sup>

Francis Bellamy devised a ritualistic straight-arm salute, with the authority figure, the school principle directing the whole ritual. The pupils stand, lift their right arms towards the flag, palm downward, and then recite the pledge. After the recitation, administrators instructed the students to say, “One Country, One Language, One Flag!” The government abandoned the straight-arm salute, per congressional edict, in December 1942 after the Nazis adopted it. School administrators used the pledge and salute as part of the National Public School Celebration on Columbus Day, October 12, 1892. The Rockefeller-financed NEA promoted the national adoption of the pledge and the placement of an American flag in every government-run classroom. Parochial schools did not adopt the program.

Advocates urged Senators, Congressmen, and other politicians to promote the proposed celebration for Columbus Day. Theodore Roosevelt, a member of the U.S. Civil Service Commission, remarked, “The Common School and Flag stand together as the arch-typical of American civilization.”<sup>[1672]</sup> Grover Cleveland, in the process of campaigning for the presidency, asked U.S. Representative Henry Cabot Lodge to arrange for President Harrison and Congress to support the approaching celebration. The government sought to finance mandatory public schools, an idea generally opposed as the majority of the populace viewed government schools as socialistic.<sup>[1673]</sup> Harrison issued a statement requesting the population to honor the 400<sup>th</sup> anniversary of Columbus with festivities at their schools or other public places.<sup>[1674]</sup>

Francis Bellamy attended a flag-raising ceremony in New Jersey on April 25, 1893, the first event at which adults recited the Pledge of Allegiance. James Upham and Francis Bellamy led the recitation, saying, “The times demand a patriotic citizenship, patriotic schools, a patriotic pulpit, a patriotic press.”<sup>[1675]</sup> Bellamy, in favor of government-run schools wrote in the *Youth’s Companion*, “Our fathers in their wisdom knew that the foundations of liberty, fraternity and equality must be universal education controlled by the government.”<sup>[1676]</sup>

There was a great patriotic fervor leading up to the Spanish-American War. Government officials required people to stand when the flag passed by. On April 22, 1898, the day after the U.S. declared war on Spain, a New York State Senate Bill #556 required all children in government schools to salute the flag. The state created the *Manual of Patriotism* offering five possible patriotic pledges. In 1939, the U.S. Flag Association acknowledged Bellamy as the author of the original pledge.<sup>[1677]</sup> On August 20, 1953, the Supreme Council of the Knights of Columbus adopted a resolution urging the addition of the phrase “under God” and submitted it to the President, the Vice President, and the speaker of the House of Representatives and to each member of Congress. President Eisenhower signed the edict for the addition of the phrase on June 14, 1954.<sup>[1678]</sup>

The Jehovah Witnesses, the Amish, and others who take the Bible seriously do not believe in earthly allegiances, participate in secular government, vote or hold office. They argue, as do specific scriptures that saluting the flag and particularly reciting oaths of any kind are a form of idolatry. The group filed suit in a federal court in the late 1930s. School authorities frequently expelled or punished the children of Jehovah Witnesses when these children refused to comply. In 1940, the Supreme Court agreed with a Pennsylvania law that required the recitation of the pledge in all public schools, possibly one could view this as dogma in the gradual establishment of secularism. The court, quite illegally, declared that Jehovah Witnesses would have to comply. The court allowed no exemptions. The Witnesses had lost the case, yet their actions outraged millions of Americans causing outbreaks of violence against Jehovah Witnesses.<sup>[1679]</sup>

In Richwood, Virginia, the police chief gathered a group of Witnesses together, required them to drink castor oil and then marched them through the streets before running them out of town. A local veterans group in Jackson, Mississippi drove Jehovah Witnesses from their homes. An angry mob in Nebraska castrated a Jehovah Witness. In Rockville, Maryland, the police assisted locals in burning down a church. The same thing occurred in Kennebunk, Maine where citizens burned a local Kingdom Hall to the ground. School officials increased their persecution of Jehovah Witnesses including threatening the children with imprisonment. The Justice Department received hundreds of complaints.<sup>[1680]</sup>

In the early 1940s, the U.S. was on the verge of entering another war and it was especially important to goad the populace into a patriotic frenzy so that young men would offer themselves as cannon fodder and the general population would support them in those militaristic efforts. Many states, therefore, imposed laws that required schoolchildren to daily recite the pledge and salute the flag. However, in 1943, because of the persecution and violence against citizens, due to religious beliefs, the court reversed its decision on grounds of free exercise. Numerous states attempted to pass legislation requiring the recitation of the pledge shortly after September 11, 2001. Minnesota’s governor at the time, Jesse Ventura, vetoed the bill as unconstitutional. The obedience-trained citizens of Minnesota criticized him for his decision.<sup>[1681]</sup>

The required recitation of the Pledge of Allegiance, whether it be implied or legally sanctioned, is problematic on several levels, not the least of which is constitutional. The Constitution, ratified by the people, took divine right away from kings and despots and made the people sovereign. For the first time in history, this turned the reins of power on its head and made the government responsible to the people – not the other way around. The flag represents the government that we hired to carry out its responsibilities

as defined by the Constitution together with the restrictions in its scope that the founders provided with the Bill of Rights. This form of government was a true gift to we the people, albeit one which we have yet to fully embrace and enact. Part of this is due to subtle but deliberate and persistent manipulations of the public psyche. In truth, the people do not “owe” automatic, unthinking allegiance and obedience to the government, so much as the government owes to the people accountability for its actions. The schools and other entities have indoctrinated the populace so that we almost mindlessly parrot the words of the Pledge and go through the motions implied by our understanding of it without even thinking about the potential consequences of our unquestioning compliance.

**Leo Nikolayevich Tolstoy**, when writing to a friend said, “The truth is that the State is a conspiracy designed not only to exploit, but above all to corrupt its citizens ... Henceforth, I shall never serve any government anywhere.”

## The Assassination Conspiracy

According to their own dogma and practices, Freemasons and their fellow travelers consistently cover the crimes of their fellow Masons. “You must conceal all the crimes of your brother Mason....and should you be summoned as a witness against a brother Mason be always sure to shield him. It may be perjury to do this, it is true, but you’re keeping your obligations.”<sup>[1682]</sup>

The socialist revolution was a huge success, the Union had destroyed the South physically and emotionally and slaughtered thousands of people in the process. On April 9, 1865, General Robert E. Lee surrendered at the home of Wilmer and Virginia McLean at the town of Appomattox Court House, Virginia, now a historical national park. To celebrate, the Lincolns invited General Ulysses S. Grant and his wife, Julia, to attend Ford’s Theater to see *Our American Cousin* on Friday, April 14, 1865, as announced in the media. Although General Grant, who fought in the Mexican-American War under Generals Zachary Taylor and Winfield Scott, accepted the invitation, they did not attend the performance as the Grants left town abruptly, ostensibly to visit their children. It was very discourteous and rather distasteful conduct on their part, especially in the absence of a family emergency. It would have been questionable etiquette to decline the invitation but to accept and then renege was in very poor taste. Typically, people in the military respond to such an invitation with obedience, particularly when the commander-in-chief extended that invitation.<sup>[1683]</sup>

On Good Friday, April 14, 1865, Lincoln and his other guests, Henry Rathbone and Clara Harris, arrived at the theater at 8:30 PM where Lincoln had a state box overlooking the stage. John Wilkes Booth, a member of the Knights of the Golden Circle, arrived at about 9:30 PM. He left his horse with Joseph Burroughs in the rear alley. John F. Parker, a previously very irresponsible and unreliable member of the Washington Metropolitan Police Force, organized on August 6, 1861, was supposed to protect the president that evening rather than his usual bodyguard, Ward Hill Lamon. Parker was supposed to sit just outside of the president’s compartment. However, Parker explained that he could not hear the actor’s voices and moved to another area. During intermission, Parker, along with two other members of Lincoln’s staff, his footman, Charles Forbes and his coachman, Francis P. Burke, went to a neighboring saloon for drinks.<sup>[1684]</sup>

On May 1, 1865, police officials charged Parker, who had been three hours late arriving at his assignment on April 14, with neglect of duty. The citation read, “Parker was detailed to attend and protect the President Mr. Lincoln, that while the President was at Ford’s Theatre on the night of the 14 of April last, Said Parker allowed a man to enter the President’s private Box and Shoot the President.” They tried Parker on May 3, 1865, but somehow failed to retain any transcripts of the event. Reporters from the Washington newspapers apparently opted not to even report on the trial or any of the circumstances

surrounding Parker's activities or trial. They dismissed the complaint against Parker on June 2, 1865.<sup>[1685]</sup> Obviously, some very influential people were involved in the situation and the resulting cover-up in the media and in the Washington Metropolitan Police Force.

Presumably, John Wilkes Booth shot Lincoln at 10:15 PM and the president died the next morning at 7:22 AM in William A. Peterson's Boarding House, across the street from Ford's Theater.<sup>[1686]</sup> Several doctors, including Dr. Charles Augustus Leale, an Army physician, attempted to save the mortally wounded Lincoln. Within a few years of the assassination, Petersen, a German-born tailor, a witness to the events subsequent to the shooting, died of an overdose of laudanum (alcohol-based mixture containing opium). People discovered his body on the property of the Masonic Smithsonian Institution. Four months later, his wife unexpectedly died.

To prevent John Wilkes Booth's escape, Secretary of War Edwin M. Stanton put up roadblocks, the route leading from the Baltimore to the Hampton Roads, covering the entire Atlantic coast. However, Booth's most likely escape route was the road that went straight south from Washington towards Port Tobacco, the direct thoroughfare to the Confederacy.<sup>[1687]</sup> Interestingly, the War Department failed to blockade the only plausible road that Booth would have taken and they took no precautions to guard access to it. Thus, the only road that Stanton opted not to protect is the very road that Booth used to escape from Washington.<sup>[1688]</sup> Instead, Stanton directed military blockades to be set up on all of the other roads leading out of the city.<sup>[1689]</sup>

On the evening of April 14, 1865, individuals disseminated rumors about a conspiracy to destroy the federal government. Consequently, within a week, Union Army Officers organized what they called the Union Loyal Legion, an organization to prevent future threats to the national government. Dr. Charles Augustus Leale, the first doctor to administer to Lincoln in the presidential box at Ford's Theatre on April 14, 1865, became an active member of the Union Loyal Legion.<sup>[1690]</sup> He attended Lincoln for the next nine hours, until Lincoln expired at 7:22 A.M. the next morning. He ultimately presented an account of Lincoln's death on the hundredth anniversary of Lincoln's birth in 1909.<sup>[1691]</sup>

On April 20, 1865, military officers convened a meeting of Philadelphia veterans where individuals renewed their allegiance to the Union. They also planned Lincoln's funeral arrangements where these same officers functioned as part of the President's honor guard during the funeral. They convened after the funeral to establish a society of officers and former officers, modeled after the Society of Cincinnati. They named their "secret organization" the *Military Order of the Loyal Legion of the United States*; they referred to it as the Union Loyal League. They held another meeting on May 31, 1865 at Independence Hall. They later decided to make it a hereditary society, from father to son.<sup>[1692]</sup>

Membership in this association numbered almost 12,000 Union officers. They included Generals Ulysses S. Grant, William T. Sherman; Lt. Generals Philip H. Sheridan, Nelson A. Miles and John M. Schofield; Major General Winfield Scott Hancock, George B. McClellan, Rutherford B. Hayes, George Armstrong Custer, David McMurtre Gregg, and Grenville M. Dodge, Admiral David G. Farragut and Rear Admirals Bancroft Gherardi and George W. Melville.<sup>[1693]</sup>

Officials arrested and tried eight people for the assassination and they found four people guilty as charged and quickly hung them. Plans were allegedly also in the works for the assassination of Andrew Johnson, Lincoln's Vice President, and Secretary of State William H. Seward. These attempts, if there were any, failed. Had they had been successful, Secretary of War Stanton would have been the greatest political benefactor. When the lone gunman shot Lincoln, Stanton had immediately seized control of Washington, presumably to capture the suspected killer, Booth who allegedly had connections to several secret societies including the Carbonari, an Illuminati group headquartered in Italy also referred to as the Alta Vendita.<sup>[1694]</sup>

There are many theories about who planned the assassination along with stories about Booth escaping and conspirators capturing and killing another man, Captain William Boyd, in Garrett's barn and thereafter, identifying him Booth.

Stanton purportedly arranged for the capture and killing of the look-alike, Boyd, by the federal troops under Stanton's command. Ostensibly, he identified the murdered man as Booth, which then allowed Booth to escape. Apparently, Booth maintained a diary in which eighteen pages were missing when people discovered it years later. Stanton testified before Congress that when he received the diary in April 1865, that there appeared to be pages missing. Supposedly, when people found those missing pages, in a Stanton descendant's attic, they contained the names of seventy government officials and key businessmen, both Northerners and Southerners who wanted to eliminate Lincoln. Individuals allegedly discovered a coded message in Booth's diary and someone purportedly discovered the corresponding code in Judah P. Benjamin's possession. Benjamin was reportedly the war's key strategist for the House of Rothschild.<sup>[1695]</sup>

Benjamin apparently sent gold to England during the war for safekeeping or maybe for seizure.<sup>[1696]</sup> The last battle of the war ended on May 13, 1865. On the morning of May 24, 1865, Confederate Secretary of State Benjamin directed his workers to transfer the South's gold from two rail cars onto five wagons. Drivers then drove those wagons as far as the Chennault Plantation in Lincoln County, Georgia where armed raiders suddenly attacked them. The significant question is – who hired the raiders. Gold has an interesting way of disappearing in one area of the world and reappearing in the City of London. John C. Breckinridge, a 33rd Degree Freemason, a crony of Albert Pike and Caleb Cushing, U.S. Attorney General Attorney (1853-1857) and a veteran of the Mexican-American War participated in the removal of the gold. Breckenridge was the U.S. Vice President under President James Buchanan. He was a member of the Knights of the Golden Circle and arrived in England at about the same time as Judah P. Benjamin.

Prior to the war, New Orleans was one of America's wealthiest cities. It was home to many cotton and sugar plantations, had a thriving port to accommodate a flourishing trade. Certain people in New Orleans enjoyed close connections to the commercial centers of New York, Philadelphia, Boston, London and Paris. The story is that certain high-level bankers in Britain sent Judah P. Benjamin to help initiate the war, fund the confederacy, and head the Confederacy's intelligence operation. He was initially the Attorney-General, then Secretary for War, and finally Secretary of State. Before he fled from Richmond with other Confederate leaders, he burned all of Confederacy secret service records, including the agency's association with the Knights of the Golden Circle.

Albert Pike, along with Jacob Thompson, escaped to Canada. Benjamin, Robert Toombs and James Bulloch fled to England.<sup>[1697]</sup> Benjamin escaped to England by September 1865, began a successful law practice catering to the British merchant class and became the Queen's Counsel by November 2, 1872. Reportedly, he was a Rothschild agent.<sup>[1698]</sup> Solomon de Rothschild referred to him as "perhaps the greatest mind on this continent."<sup>[1699]</sup> John Slidell left the country and made his permanent home in France. Confederate secret service agent John Surratt fled to Italy while the authorities convicted and executed his mother for the alleged complicity with Booth in Lincoln's death. When John Surratt later returned to the country, officials arrested, tried and acquitted him. Reportedly, he later admitted that he had plotted with Booth to kidnap Lincoln.<sup>[1700]</sup>

Congress created the Assassination Committee to ascertain if Andrew Johnson had participated in some manner. He functioned in Lincoln's second administration as Vice President from March 4, 1865 to April 15, 1865. Reportedly, Booth had met with Johnson in 1864 and earlier and then again just hours before the shooting. These earlier meetings occurred when Johnson was the Military Governor of Tennessee from March 12, 1862 to March 4, 1865. Mary Todd Lincoln, in a letter to a friend, implicated Johnson in her

husband's death.<sup>[1701]</sup> In 1875, Robert Todd Lincoln had his mother committed to an asylum and assumed control of her finances. She engineered her release through friends and the court but remained estranged from her son. The Lincoln's favorite son, eleven-year old William Wallace "Willie" Lincoln, had died of "bilious fever" on February 20, 1862. Mary Lincoln was inconsolable and believed that Willie's death was divine punishment because, as she said, they had been "so wrapped up in the world, so devoted to our own political advancement."<sup>[1702]</sup>

Lincoln had conspired to assassinate the Confederate President Jefferson Davis and his entire cabinet. Lincoln assigned Colonel Ulric Dahlgren to lead the attack in Richmond. However, a Confederate soldier shot and killed Dahlgren during the operation on March 2, 1864. Later that evening, thirteen-year-old William Littlepage found Dahlgren's body, went through his pockets and discovered some papers, one of which had the following noted, "The men must keep together and well in hand, and once in the city it must be destroyed and Jeff. Davis and Cabinet killed." Other papers implicated Lincoln who Booth supposedly killed in retaliation, as devised by Davis and Benjamin.<sup>[1703]</sup> The Union confiscated the papers from the collection of Confederate papers when Robert E. Lee surrendered. They took the papers to Washington and turned them over to the War Department. War Secretary Stanton directed Franz Lieber to extract the Dahlgren Papers from the Confederate documents and bring them to him. Thereafter, no one ever saw them again.<sup>[1704]</sup>

When the war ended, reconstruction began. Anti-slavery congressmen were determined to destroy whatever power remained in the South. The Ku Klux Klan, together with the Freemasons, working for the slave owners, countered that activity with terrorism, as if they could block the Reconstruction efforts. Benjamin, from England, wrote that he could never visit his old home, New Orleans, as it would break his heart to witness Negroes and carpetbaggers running things. He found the idea of elevating the populace absolutely abhorrent. On July 15, 1865, Albert Pike, still in Canada, told the Supreme Council to resume Masonic operations of the Scottish rite, Southern Jurisdiction. Within six weeks, President Johnson allowed Pike to return to the U.S. In April 1866, his Supreme Council convened, in full regalia in the White House where President Johnson granted him a full pardon.<sup>[1705]</sup>

Robert Todd Lincoln, the president's son declined the invitation to Ford's Theater that fateful night on April 14, 1865. He later allegedly discovered documents implicating individuals who escaped culpability for his father's assassination and destroyed them.<sup>[1706]</sup> Former President and Chief Justice William Howard Taft authorized the Lincoln Memorial Bill on February 11, 1911. On February 12, 1914, groundbreaking ceremonies for the Lincoln Memorial took place. They laid the cornerstone one year later. Robert T. Lincoln and other members of the hereditary Union Loyal Legion participated in every stage of the planning of the Lincoln Memorial, including its dedication. The Society has directed a yearly memorial service ever since on February, the anniversary of Lincoln's birth.<sup>[1707]</sup>

Lincoln's last public appearance was on May 30, 1922 when William Howard Taft dedicated the Lincoln Memorial. Freemason Henry Bacon had designed the structure wherein a large 19-foot sculpture of Abraham Lincoln sits on a throne with his hands clutching the arms of the throne decorated with the fasces, an ancient symbol of authority or statism. Significantly, the emblem of the Society of Cincinnati was the fasces, the symbol of ancient Roman officialdom. The charter members of the Union Loyal League patterned their group after the Society of Cincinnati. Daniel Chester French, a neighbor and friend of Illuminist Ralph Waldo Emerson designed the statue. Behind Lincoln's statue, a huge plaque reads, "In this temple as in the hearts of the people for whom he saved the union the memory of Abraham Lincoln is enshrined forever."



While Robert Todd Lincoln was not present when Booth shot his father, he was present on July 2, 1881, when Charles J. Guiteau shot President James A. Garfield and on September 6, 1901, when Leon Frank Czolgosz shot President William McKinley. Allegedly, Lincoln had collaborated with some of the individuals implicated in his father's death. Later he discovered documents implicating individuals who escaped culpability for the assassination and destroyed them. [\[1708\]](#)

Robert T. Lincoln attended the very elite Phillips Exeter Academy and then Harvard University. After his father's death, he attended what is now the University of Chicago and officials admitted him to the bar on February 25, 1867. He joined the Union Army as a captain the end of the war on General Grant's staff, a relatively safe position. Lincoln was President James Garfield's Secretary of War (1881-1885). He was the U.S. ambassador to Britain (1889-1893) under President Benjamin Harrison.

Lincoln was general counsel to George Pullman of the Pullman Company and became president of the company when Pullman died on October 19, 1897. He was president of the Pullman Company (1897-1911), located in Chicago then became its chairman until his death on July 26, 1926. Researcher Charles Savoie claims that Pullman Company investors included charter members of the Pilgrims Society, Marshall Field, John D. Rockefeller, Andrew Mellon, and the Vanderbilts. [\[1709\]](#) Presumably, Robert Lincoln was also a member, given his government position in Britain followed by his interesting business associations.

Like-minded politicians and their banker friends, always ready to honor their corrupt cohorts, enacted legislation to build the Lincoln Memorial, the reflecting pond and to declare a national holiday. Treasury officials have minted Lincoln's face on the penny and printed it on the five-dollar bill. Additionally, they memorialized Lincoln, along with others, on Mount Rushmore. Hundreds of textbooks praise the divisive man who coordinated a deadly fratricidal total war. The memorialization of this man legitimizes his egregious abusive policies – control of the press in times of emergency, confiscation of private property, the income tax, a certain path to the Federal Reserve and numerous other Marxist practices to this day. Evidently, if the man was so remarkable, as an abundance of government-friendly, establishment writers' claims, then all of his otherwise questionable actions were also necessary, courageous and meritorious. He set a pattern of tyranny for every subsequent U.S. president. His death, with its high emotional impact, alleviated his responsibility to account for the misery and death that he deliberately brought upon his country. Significant time, massive educational and media indoctrination proves the certain effectiveness of repetitive falsehoods – the moral masses, yes Christians, will accept whatever their elite class managers disseminate. Combined with martyrdom, all of these factors have made a hero out of one of history's worst tyrants.

# Ethnic Cleansing in America

## Biological Warfare against the Indians

After the Spanish conquest, an Indian of Yucatan wrote about his people in happier days, before the Europeans arrived, “There was then no sickness; they had no aching bones; they had then no high fever; they had then no smallpox; they had then no burning chest; they had then no abdominal pain; they had then no consumption; they had then no headache. At that time, the course of humanity was orderly. The foreigners made it otherwise when they arrived here.”<sup>[1710]</sup>

The conquistadors introduced smallpox into the New World as early as 1503, either from the slaves they imported from Africa into the Caribbean or by the Spanish sailors who carried the Variola major. As the Spaniards moved from one Caribbean island to another, suppressing and enslaving the indigenous population, they brought with them the deadly disease that wiped out entire villages in its wake. In December 1518 and January 1519, the natives on Hispaniola developed smallpox which soon spread to the natives in Antigua, Barbados, Cuba, Jamaica, Martinique and Puerto Rico and ultimately Central and North America. The Indians had no natural immunity to this deadly pestilence. The death rates were so high, that often three out of every four Indians were afflicted. Thus, there was no one to care for the ill and many, who might have recovered, starved to death because there was no one healthy enough to hunt and fish.<sup>[1711]</sup>

In May 1519, Diego Velázquez directed Pánfilo de Narváez to take his 600 soldiers, go arrest Hernán Cortéz, and take over his command in Mexico. They sailed from Cuba during a raging epidemic of smallpox. Narváez took a smallpox-infected African slave with him who was “unaware that he was to be the instrument that would bring about the Aztecs ‘near annihilation.’” He infected numerous natives with whom he interacted.<sup>[1712]</sup>

African-born Onesimus, a slave belonging to Cotton Mather, told his master about the inoculation practices used in Africa against smallpox, a highly contagious disease that had broken out in epidemic proportions in Boston in 1721. Onesimus explained the inoculation procedure to Dr. Zabdiel Boylston who then proceeded to use the method on patients in Boston and the surrounding area. In the 1721 smallpox epidemic, at least 6,000 people became infected. Dr. Boylston inoculated over 240 people including his son and two slaves despite the fact that people considered the process extremely dangerous and controversial. The doctor would extract material from the pustule of the infected person; place the material on a thorn, then scratch the skin of the unaffected person with the thorn. Allegedly, this provided immunity to the unaffected person.<sup>[1713]</sup>

People opposed this process politically, medically and religiously. Religious practitioners viewed it as unnatural and perceived it as undermining God’s will. Public records indicate that the inoculation itself killed at least two percent of the people who requested it as opposed to fifteen percent of the people who died from the disease who did not avail themselves to this procedure. Purportedly, Onesimus’ report of this traditional African medical practice prevented numerous deaths while it introduced the practice of smallpox inoculation in America.<sup>[1714]</sup>

Henry Dobyns estimated that there were between one million and eighteen million natives in what is now the United States. Further, he claimed that ninety-three pandemics and epidemics from European pathogens were the main cause of the decline of the indigenous population. Dobyns stated that in the nineteenth century there were at least twenty-seven epidemic outbreaks, including thirteen deadly smallpox epidemics, the worst two in 1801-1802 and 1836-1840. In 1801-1802, the plains Indians suffered a loss of more than half of their population.<sup>[1715]</sup>

Sherburne Cook claims that only 8.64 percent of California's Indian population perished because of U.S. military action. Further, he states that disease killed the remainder of the Indians who perished. Cook also concluded that white settlers killed approximately 6,750 Indians living in New England from 1634 to 1676 despite the fact that there was many times that number living in the area. Russell Thornton concluded that whites killed about 45,000 American Indians during formal warfare between 1775 and 1890 in addition to individual conflicts, which brings the total to between 53,000 and 106,000 deaths during a period of 115 years. Yet, during those same years the population declined by over 1.5 million.<sup>[1716]</sup> The apologists contend that unintended disease caused the Indian's earliest decline despite starvation, forced relocations, enforced labor, rape, military slaughter, psychological trauma, and destruction of the food supply.

It was not too long before the dreaded smallpox had spread throughout the tribes living along the Ohio River such as the Mingo, the Delaware and the Shawnee. The British, many of whom may have been carriers, brought smallpox to the tribes in the South, which caused four epidemics in the Carolinas, 1711-1712, 1738, 1759, and the late 1700s. In the mid-1700s, the Cherokees lost approximately half of the tribes. Other tribes in the Southeast lost similar numbers. On December 15, 1759, the *South Carolina Gazette* reported, "It is pretty certain that the Smallpox has lately raged with great Violence among the Catawba Indians, and that it was carried off near one-half of that nation, by throwing themselves into the River, as soon as they found themselves ill – This Distemper has since appeared amongst the Inhabitants of the Charraws and Waterees, where Many Families are down; so that unless special care I taken, it must soon (spread) thro' the whole country."<sup>[1717]</sup>

In an early experimentation of biological warfare, Sir Jeffrey Amherst, commander-in-chief and a Freemason, willfully introduced blankets laden with smallpox to Pontiac's Confederacy, a loose confederation of Native American tribes from the Great Lakes region, the Illinois Country, and Ohio Country during the French and Indian War (1754–1763). Colonel Henry Bouquet received a letter from General Amherst in which he said, "Could it not be contrived to send the Small Pox among those disaffected tribes of Indians? We must on this occasion use every stratagem in our power to reduce them." Bouquet responded, "I will try to inoculate them with some blankets that may fall into their hands and take care not to get the disease myself."<sup>[1718]</sup>

William Trent, commander of Pittsburgh's local militia, wrote in his records on May 24, 1763 "we gave them two Blankets and a Handkerchief out of the Small Pox Hospital. I hope it will have the desired effect." Small pox erupted among Chief Pontiac's confederate tribe killing men, women, and children. General Amherst made biological warfare official policy in the war against the Indians. In another letter to Colonel Bouquet, dated July 16, 1763, he ordered the distribution of small pox infected blankets to "inoculate the Indians" and directed Bouquet to "try every other method that can serve to extirpate this execrable race." Bouquet confirmed Amherst's directive in a letter dated July 26, 1763, "all your directions will be observed"<sup>[1719]</sup>

The U.S. Army repeated this deadly tactic by introducing blankets laden with the same disease to the Missouri River Mandans during the 1830s. The Smithsonian Institution acknowledged Amherst's use of biological warfare, "During the bitter fighting in 1763-1764 General Jeffrey Amherst ordered that the Indians around Fort Pitt be infected with gifts of smallpox (laden) blankets. The Indian uprising failed, and Fort Pitt was easily relieved after a smallpox epidemic broke out among the warriors besieging the fort."<sup>[1720]</sup> Amherst, who brought military Freemasonry to the colonies, wrote to Sir William Johnson in London, "When Men of What race soever, behave ill they must be punished."<sup>[1721]</sup> Amherst, an arrogant aristocrat who despised all Indians, withheld gunpowder from France's former allies, fully recognizing that the tribes depended on their muskets for hunting and would starve without ammunition.<sup>[1722]</sup> Amherst

College, in Massachusetts was named after Lord Jeffrey.<sup>[1723]</sup>

Amherst's tactics created an epidemic among the Cherokees (allied with the British) in 1783, which helped George Washington's forces and ended the Cherokee's resistance. The U.S. Army repeated Amherst's biological warfare tactics by distributing smallpox-infected blankets to the Mandans at Fort Clark in present day South Dakota. This led to the smallpox epidemic of 1836-40. The Mandan, out of about 2,400 there were only thirty-one survivors.<sup>[1724]</sup> By conservative calculations the number of Indians among the various tribes who perished total are – Blackfoot, Piegans, and Bloods 6,000 to 8,000; Pawnee, 2,000; Arikara and Minutere, about half of the total tribe 4,500; Osage 1,000; Crow and Yanktonai Dakota, 400; Assiniboin over half of their tribe of 8,000; and three-fifths of the north-central California Indians. In the south between 400 and 500 Choctaw perished. There are no numbers for the other southern tribes like the Chickasaw Kiowa, the Apache, the Gros Ventre, the Winnebago, Comanche, Cayuse, and other New Mexico, Canada, and Alaska Indians.<sup>[1725]</sup>

Officials elected Dr. Edward Jenner (1749-1823) as a Fellow of the Royal Society in 1788 and he discovered the vaccination process against smallpox in 1789. In 1790, Edward Jenner purchased a medical degree from St. Andrews University for £15. In 1791, Edward Jenner vaccinated his 18-month-old son with swinepox. In 1796, people in Gloucestershire, England credited Jenner with the concept of vaccination. He vaccinated an 8-year-old boy with smallpox pus. He ultimately vaccinated the boy at least twenty times. The boy died from tuberculosis at the age of twenty. In 1798, he vaccinated his son with cowpox. His son died of tuberculosis at the age of twenty-one. In 1802, the British government gave Jenner £10,000 for continued experimentation with the smallpox vaccine. Experts abandoned the paradigm that vaccines provide lifetime immunity and sanctioned the concept of revaccination. A Freemason, Jenner was the Worshipful Master of the Faith and Friendship Lodge #270 in Berkeley, England. In 1822, the British government advanced him another £20,000 for smallpox vaccine experimentation. Jenner suppressed reports that indicated his concept was causing numerous deaths rather than saving lives.

According to the apologists, disease caused the mass deaths among the indigenous population. They claim that depopulation occurred unintentionally and not by deceptive design despite all the evidence existing in government records and the acknowledged army policies that just happened to accommodate the white settlers and commercial interests of the imperialists. In his book, Rosenbaum notes that following the 1797 discovery of the smallpox vaccination, the U.S. government encouraged all Indians to accept vaccinations.<sup>[1726]</sup>

In 1801, President Thomas Jefferson initiated a vaccine program among the native population when a delegation of warriors visited the District of Columbia. When he sent Meriwether Lewis and William Clark on their exploration, he instructed them to “vaccinate Indians whom they encountered during their travels.” Jefferson wrote them, “Carry with you some matter of kinpox. Inform those of them with whom you may be of its efficacy as a preservative from the smallpox; and instruct and encourage them in the use of it.” Kinpox (*Variola vaccinia*) is an alternate name for cowpox. Lewis and Clark apparently did not have sufficient quantities of the vaccine to carry out Jefferson's directive. The vaccine, made from kinpox, was only available from England.<sup>[1727]</sup>

On May 5, 1832, under the Jackson Administration, Congress enacted the following legislation, “That it shall be the duty of the several Indian agents and sub-agents under the direction of the Secretary of War to take such measures as he shall deem most efficient to convene the Indian tribes in their respective towns, or in such other places and numbers and at such seasons as shall be most convenient to the Indian populations, for the purpose of arresting the progress of smallpox among the several tribes by vaccination.” The government appropriated \$12,000 for the project, a sizeable sum at the time. The Plains

Indians viewed the white men's "operation" as some "new mode or trick of the pale face by which they hope to gain some new advantage over them." Another epidemic in 1861-1862, during the Lincoln Administration, prompted the U.S. government in another attempt to vaccinate the natives, especially those living in the West.<sup>[1728]</sup>

Quite possibly, smallpox, a highly contagious disease, had claimed the lives of more Northern Plains Indians, a "virgin population," in one year, 1837-1838, than all the military expeditions sent against them. The Indians used a very descriptive name for smallpox – rotting face. Author Roland G. Robertson claims that people disseminated smallpox through the "tribal trading networks" thus destroying their "elaborate Indian trading system," and eliminating indigenous intermediaries. The disease then quickly spread to the interior and killed thousands. Without the indigenous intermediaries, Indians became dependent on white traders. This allowed Europeans, notably John Jacob Astor, to monopolize the fur trade that the Indians previously managed.<sup>[1729]</sup> Astor owned the American Fur Company, one the first monopoly trusts in America.

The Cayuse, another tribe decimated by disease, formerly resided in parts of northeast Oregon and southeast Washington where they were associated with the Nez Percé and spoke a language belonging to the Sahaptin-Chinook branch of the Penutian linguistic stock. Marcus Whitman established a mission among this tribe in 1836 at Waiilatpu, the Place of the Rye Grass.<sup>[1730]</sup>

Biological warfare, now a U.S. government policy, adopted after they witnessed the success that the British had against France's Indian allies in the French and Indian Wars (1754–63). Accordingly, during the nineteenth century, the U.S. Army disseminated contaminated blankets to the Indians for extermination purposes. Smallpox, now available in a dry state, and cholera were very effective. A smallpox epidemic erupted in 1847 among the Cayuse, which destroyed the majority of the tribe. The Cayuse thought the missionaries who were working among them had caused the deaths. Therefore, the surviving Indians attacked the mission on November 29, 1847, and killed Dr. Whitman and thirteen others who lived there. Perhaps, the Indians thought the mission was the distribution point for the blankets provided by the U.S. government.<sup>[1731]</sup> The settlers then declared war and defeated the Cayuse.<sup>[1732]</sup> In 1855, the U.S. military incarcerated the surviving Cayuse on the Umatilla Reservation in Oregon, along with the Wallawalla and Umatilla peoples. By 1990, there were only 126 Cayuse Indians still living.<sup>[1733]</sup>

Smallpox was not the only disease that the Indians feared. In the eighteenth century, there were at least six other epidemics afflicting the indigenous population – measles, three of influenza, one of plague, one of typhoid, two of typhus, two of diphtheria, and two epidemics of scarlet fever. Tuberculosis and syphilis, as well as other sexually transmitted diseases decimated the native population. The high incident of rape by the invading Europeans introduced and spread these obnoxious diseases among the native population. Tuberculosis was particularly deadly and could wipe out the majority of an Indian village. Epidemics of malaria, dysentery, cholera and bubonic plague produced high mortality rates among the Indians living in Texas during the eighteenth century.<sup>[1734]</sup>

With regard to tuberculosis, author Kevin Annett, with documented evidence, states that the Canadian government, by 1891, in collaboration with the church officials who were supervising the resident schools deliberately placed healthy children in the same rooms with children suffering from tuberculosis in order to perpetuate the disease and decimate the indigenous population in Canada. They used other devious depopulation methods, as their main objective was the seizure of native lands and natural resources. By, 1850, Canada's native population in the east were afflicted by smallpox brought by the Europeans. The indigenous population in the east was barely ten percent of what it had been before the Europeans arrived.<sup>[1735]</sup>

Altogether, Indian deaths probably exceeded 100,000 and more than likely several times that figure. This

mass genocide facilitated the U.S. conquest of the land west of the Mississippi River. U.S. military strategy included the systematic destruction of the indigenous food production, both the agricultural crops and the decimation of the buffalo devised to inflict starvation conditions upon the Indian population, which severely limited their natural resistance to disease in the presence of deliberate epidemics. General Phil Sheridan's policy, during the 1870s, led to the extermination of at least sixty million buffalo, the principal food supply for the Great Plains Indians, the Cheyenne and the Lakota.<sup>[1736]</sup>

In 1884, editors asked Dr. Charles Creighton to write an article for the Encyclopedia Britannica on vaccinations. After extensive international research, he concluded that vaccinations represented "a gross superstition." Later, Creighton wrote two books, *Cowpox and Vaccinal Syphilis* and *Jenner and Vaccination*. In that same year, more than 1,700 children who they vaccinated for smallpox died of syphilis. In Japan, during a seven-year period of time beginning in 1886 there were 25,474,370 vaccinations and re-vaccinations, which represented sixty-six percent of the Japanese population. During that period, there were 165,774 cases of smallpox resulting in 28,979 deaths.

## Westward Ho, Killing as They Go

The early settlers in Virginia, the starting place for European inhabitation, had set the precedent for the rest of the country. During the next two centuries, in the 1700s and 1800s, settlers in the west slaughtered between 95% and 98% of California's Indian population. Mere percentages only, do not convey the enormity of the gruesome suffering hundreds of thousands of California native peoples suffered during the decimation of their population beginning as early as 1769, a population that earlier invaders had already savagely reduced through disease and violence. One can apply those same percentages to the rest of the country, to the point that, only one-third of one percent of America's population, about 250,000 out of 76,000,000 people, was native. Up to that time, this slaughter constitutes the worst human genocide that had occurred. It cost the lives of countless tens of millions of indigenous people in the Americas. The brutality and slaughter finally ended when the elite ultimately ran out of people to kill.<sup>[1737]</sup>

The Cherokees were militarily dispossessed of their lands in Georgia during the 1829 Georgia Gold Rush, beginning in Lumpkin County. In addition, in 1874, the discovery of gold in the Black Hills affected the Indians living there. The Alaska Gold Rush resulted in territorial losses and mass deaths. In the first two years of the California Gold Rush, which began on January 24, 1848, miners slaughtered thousands of resident Indians. California's Indians spoke more than 100 distinct dialects, belonged to small bands, and lived in culturally autonomous villages. They had extensive trade networks with their neighbors and as far away as Mexico, the Southwest, the Great Basin, the Northwest Coast, and the Northwest Plateau. If we can trust oral traditions, they even interacted with the Hawaiians and other peoples of the Pacific Islands.<sup>[1738]</sup>

In 1848, James Marshall hired several tribes to construct a sawmill on the American River for John Sutter. Marshall needed a millrace, a fast-moving stream of water that drives a mill wheel, at an Indian village at Coloma. On January 24, 1848, in their digging, the Indians found gold nuggets and showed them to the whites. The Indians had seen gold before but placed no inordinate value on it. However, white men viewed gold differently.<sup>[1739]</sup> On March 3, 1849, Washington officials transferred the Bureau of Indian Affairs (March 11, 1824) from the War Department to the new Interior Department. When gold was discovered in California in 1848, the House of Rothschild, because of its substantial involvement in bullion trading, quickly established a San Francisco agency and appointed Benjamin Davidson and John May as their representatives.

Some whites considered Indians as subhuman and called them "diggers," an offensive word similar to "nigger." White miners began raping and slaughtering Indians in March 1849.<sup>[1740]</sup> Anglos had interacted with the indigenous population for over 200 years and had developed prejudices, based on the

government's egregious treatment of the Indians. By the time of the California gold discovery, most whites hated Indians, as they regarded them as godless, barbaric and savage with no "redeeming value." Either the "diggers," as they called them, had to be relocated or exterminated. Enlightened whites conceded to relocating Indians to "reservations where they could be civilized."<sup>[1741]</sup>

As many as 4,000 Indians worked in the gold fields by 1850. This changed after miners from Oregon arrived and started killing the Indian miners. Soon, Indians stopped working in the gold fields.<sup>[1742]</sup> In 1852, Edward Beale, the state's first superintendent of Indian Affairs, established the first reservation in California.<sup>[1743]</sup> There were four forts in California – at San Francisco, Monterey, Santa Barbara, and San Diego. Each fort housed soldiers who protected the associate missions from attack. The soldiers regularly raped the Indian daughters, wives, mothers and grandmothers and slaughtered their male family members who opposed such assaults.<sup>[1744]</sup> *The Chico Courant* of July 28, 1866 reported, "It is a mercy to the red devils to exterminate them."<sup>[1745]</sup> White miners, throughout California, murdered thousands of Indians, raped hundreds of native women and children, and sold thousands of individuals into slavery while others died from disease and malnutrition associated with their subjugation. In 1846, there had been at least 120,000 or more Indians in California. By the 1860s, there were between 20,000 and 40,000. Most of the deaths occurred between 1848 and 1868.<sup>[1746]</sup>

Between the discovery of gold in 1848 and 1870, half of the native population in Humboldt County had perished. The population declined from 40,000 to 20,000 souls. They had been kidnapped, killed or they suffered from the diseases that spread from the gold fields to the reservations. The racist immigrants who poured into California from all over the world murdered or enslaved thousands of Indians. The whites thought the Indians warranted total extermination. Some of the California natives managed to survive the genocide, the racial discrimination, the forced relocations, the land seizures, the rapes, the health issues, and all of the other burdens associated with the arrival of the white man. For California's natives, the Gold Rush constituted a holocaust.<sup>[1747]</sup>

By the beginning of Lincoln's War, U.S. officials had deported most of the Indians from their lands east of the Mississippi. The military summarily slaughtered the Indians west of the river or placed them in isolated camps on infertile barren land that no one else wanted.<sup>[1748]</sup> Within a year of the Indian's gold discovery at Coloma, bands of whites methodically murdered men, women, and children to obliterate every obstacle in the way of land, water, and mineral resources. Miners drove Indians from their lands and stole their resources. These miners grew up during the 1820s and 1830s and witnessed the forced removal of thousands of Indians throughout the eastern U.S. White miners simply followed the example of their fathers and grandfathers towards the indigenous Californians, driven to the sea with nowhere to go.<sup>[1749]</sup>

The elites controlling the federal government planned to seize the gold resources in the western territories and sought to impede any efforts by the Confederacy to take control of any resource-rich land. If the Union could bring the Confederacy to its proverbial knees and could bring them back into the Union, then that would restore the total control over raw materials, production, markets, and labor to the elite. Lincoln claimed that those lands and the "national resources" belonged to the nation, his nation. As noted by author David Williams, Lincoln claimed that the "national resources...are unexhausted, and, as we believe, inexhaustible." Businessmen, the people Lincoln represented, had designs on all available resources. "If Indians stood in the way, they were by definition threats to national security and obstacles to 'progress.' As such, they were subject to extermination."<sup>[1750]</sup>

Only 3.5 percent of the homesteaders seeking western lands were actually awarded land. However, their hunger for land and their arduous settlement efforts accomplished the drudgery of opening up the west for the elites. Most did not object to slaughtering the heathen and Christian Indians, heavily vilified by the

government and the military as savages, worthy of death. After all, they were fighting for their country! There were gold and silver strikes in Colorado, California, Nevada and the Pacific Northwest. The greed for other resources – timber and minerals obliterated any Christian values that got in the way. Many Indians were willing to share the vast resources with others but the white men did not view sharing as an option as they wanted it all. Indigenous peoples throughout the world have lost their lands and resources to invaders unwilling to share.<sup>[1751]</sup>

In California, armed militias and vigilantes waged a genocidal war against the Shasta, Wioyot, Yuki, Hoopa, Klamath and other tribes. Indians who refused to allow themselves to be herded into government-run reservations so people could steal their land were killed. Whites stole the Indian's livestock, raped their women or took them as concubines. They kidnapped their children to sell as slaves. Survivors who did not starve were shot on sight. Local officials paid a bounty for their scalps. In February 1860, citizens chased Bret Harte, editor of the *Northern Californian*, out of Union, California for reporting the massacre of sixty Indian residents, many of whom were women and children, who the white residents had hacked to death with axes and hatchets near Humboldt Bay.<sup>[1752]</sup>

Gold discoveries in Idaho and Montana attracted thousands of prospectors. This led to the development of travel routes through the buffalo herds of Dakota Territory, which compelled the Indians to leave their traditional hunting grounds and affected their ability to hunt, essential to their survival. To secure the travel routes, Federal troops converged upon the Yanktonais Sioux and the Santee refugees from Minnesota and relocated them to the Crow Creek Reservation in central South Dakota. Under the direction of General Sully, several thousand troops attacked the Western Sioux encampments. On July 28, 1864, at the Battle of Killdeer Mountain, the outnumbered and outgunned Indians, retreating for their lives, abandoned 400,000 pounds of dried buffalo meat. Sully was not able to entirely exterminate the Western Sioux. He was instrumental in establishing forts that would serve as bases for unrelenting warfare against the indigenous residents who happened to be in the path of progress.<sup>[1753]</sup>

Governor Leland Stanford, a Freemason, was impatient with the slowness of the work of death and called out the state militia to wage a total war of extermination. He appointed Colonel Stephen G. Whipple and his men to sweep through northern California and kill every Indian they could find. They imprisoned those who escaped slaughter on Alcatraz Island and in unprotected reservations. Hostile whites were free to exterminate the residents.<sup>[1754]</sup> During the gold rush, Stanford grew wealthy selling supplies to the prospectors. On June 28, 1861, he co-founded the Central Pacific Railroad, the first transcontinental railway line over the Sierra Nevada, with Charles Crocker, Mark Hopkins and Collis P. Huntington. The alliance acquired control of the Southern Pacific Railroad in 1868. They received massive funding and land grants to build the railroad.

Settlers and prospectors overran the Paiute's land in the Nevada Territory due to gold and silver discoveries between 1861 and 1863. This also occurred in the more fertile areas of Washington Territory, Idaho Territory, and the new state of Oregon. Miners invaded the lands of the native Spokane, Snake, Klamath, Modoc, Bannock, Cayuse and Nez Percé Indians. Local and territorial governments, run by whites, did not attempt to stop the illegalities and abuses against the indigenous peoples. The army killed Indians; they did not protect them from whites. The army protected the whites in their crimes against the Indians. The Indians had no protection except their own defenses.<sup>[1755]</sup> Isaac Stevens negotiated a series of treaties with tribes in Washington, which happened to coincide with the gold discovery at Colville. Oregon's Governor George Curry wanted the military to exercise more harshness towards the Indians who were unwilling to vacate their land.<sup>[1756]</sup>

Some tribes were so desperate for peace that they allowed the government to build forts on their land thinking that the military would protect them against the whites. Instead, the constant military presence

posed an “implicit threat” used to extract treaty agreements. Thus, the Nez Percé lost 90% of their remaining lands. Some tribes, unable to acquire official protection, organized bands and successfully implemented guerrilla-style warfare against mining camps, small farming settlements, unprotected ranches and travelers. Failing to prevent or catch them, the army established more forts in northern Nevada, California, Oregon and Idaho as base camps for future warfare against the Indians.<sup>[1757]</sup> General George Crook, starting in 1866, maintained a two-year campaign that finally broke the Paiutes’ power over the southwestern Idaho gold fields, much to the delight of his superiors.<sup>[1758]</sup> Crook viewed the Indian-white relations in the area as, “the fable of the wolf and the lamb.” A white brute could shoot an Indian in cold blood or rape an Indian woman or child and escape any kind of punishment.<sup>[1759]</sup>

For generations, the Ute’s stretched from western Colorado into parts of Utah and Nevada, an area that had sufficient game to sustain life. The Utes repeatedly begged the government to expel the invading miners who were developing settlements and destroying the wild game. James Collins, the region’s Indian Superintendent made requests for compensation but Congress ignored them. Without food and little hope of official help, the Ute took things into their own hands and started fighting back by stealing livestock from the ranchers who had encroached on their land. This resulted in a bloodbath with the survivors forced onto a small reservation in the southwest corner of the territory.<sup>[1760]</sup>

Invading whites seized large portions of the Indian’s choicest land, habitually without any form of compensation. Inevitably, the whites destroyed the wild game that the Indians depended upon. Despite the Indian’s efforts to protect themselves, the results were always the same: starvation leading to desperation followed by stealing when they would be caught and slaughtered by the well-equipped U.S. military. The military typically relocated the traumatized survivors to isolated camps on unproductive land, where they were wholly dependent on government annuities in order to subsist.<sup>[1761]</sup>

Alphonse de Rothschild declared in 1870, “I am of the opinion that the more precious metals we have, be it gold, be it silver, the better it will be, because there will be more work. Bullion is not wealth, properly speaking, but it is the muscle and fuel of work. The best proof of this is the wonderful development of trade and industry that followed the finds in California. We owe the great works that are the glory of our day to those goldmines.”<sup>[1762]</sup>

Lieutenant General Philip H. Sheridan, commander of the Chicago-based Division of the Missouri, had jurisdiction over the Great Sioux Reservation. He was supposed to keep the whites out of Sioux territory and prevent Sioux aggression against the frontier settlements, which, to him, justified the need of a military post in the Black Hills. He said, “In this way, we could secure a strong foothold in the heart of the Sioux and thereby exercise a controlling influence over these war-like people.” He ordered Colonel George A. Custer to head a military reconnaissance to the Black Hills. On July 2, 1874, Custer, with his Seventh Cavalry, about 1,000 men, left Fort Abraham Lincoln in the northern part of Dakota Territory. The expedition discovered a sizable amount of gold on French Creek, in western South Dakota. In mid-August, on the way home, Custer dispatched a message describing the various agricultural and mineral wealth of the area. Custer and his men soon forgot the original purpose of the trip in the excitement about the gold discovery.<sup>[1763]</sup>

Custer and his Seventh Cavalry Regiment made it a practice to slaughter the Indian pony herds in order to diminish the native’s ability to combat the military but also as a way of eliminating their ability to hunt. General Phil Sheridan advocated the extermination of the bison (buffalo) herds in order to “destroy the commissary” of the Plains Indians.<sup>[1764]</sup> William Frederick Cody (Buffalo Bill) obtained a contract to supply the Kansas Pacific Railroad workers with bison meat. Cody slaughtered at least 4,280 bison in eight months (1867–1868) but left most of the bison to rot. The Plains Indians used the bison for meat, leather, sinew for bows, grease, dried dung for fires, and they even used the hooves, which they boiled for

glue. The U.S. Army promoted the wholesale slaughter of bison herds. The Federal government allowed ranchers to range their cattle without competition from the bison. The government wanted to decrease the native population by eliminating their food source in order to pressure them onto the reservation and dependency. The railroad industry also wanted to eliminate the bison herds.

The Sioux viewed Custer's expedition as a violation of the Treaty of Fort Laramie (1868). General William T. Sherman helped negotiate that treaty and claimed, after the fact, that there were exceptions for government officers or others on special assignments, such as explorations. The Sioux later referred to Custer's route into their territory as "the Thief's Road" because that is the path the white prospectors took into the Black Hills. Custer's expedition triggered a stampede of gold miners, a clear treaty violation. Sheridan grumbled about having "double duty," protecting the white settlements from possible Indian raids in addition to keeping whites out of the Black Hills. He suggested a permanent solution for the Black Hills issue. President Grant appointed a negotiation committee to persuade the Sioux to forfeit their land in the Black Hills.<sup>[1765]</sup>

In the summer of 1875, the government ordered another expedition to thoroughly examine the region's material resources. Two geologists, Henry Newton and Walter P. Jenney, conducted it, along with a sizeable military escort. After five months of extensive examination, they confirmed the presence of gold, which caused an immediate policy shift regarding the Sioux and the Black Hills. Grant's committee was unsuccessful in their attempts to steal the Sioux's land by negotiation so Grant decided to ignore the white intruders in the Sioux reservation. U.S. troops would no longer enforce the treaty provisions regarding keeping the marauding whites out. This new attitude significantly increased the number of gold seekers heading for the Black Hills. In addition, the U.S. military would no longer protect whites from Sioux raiding parties.<sup>[1766]</sup>

If the Sioux waged war over the treaty violations, Grant would withhold supplies from the tribe. The U.S. government had provided the Sioux with more than just basic essentials as part of the stipulations of the 1868 treaty. If the Sioux opposed white expansion into their territory, he would cut off supplies. He further withdrew all military troops from the Hills. That would guarantee conflict between the Sioux and the white interlopers. He also authorized the removal of the Sioux hunting bands that were in Wyoming and Montana. They had to return to the reservation by January 1, 1876 or be viewed as hostile. However, by then, it was winter and travel was difficult if not impossible. The Sioux Campaign of 1876-77 was the result of their failure to return to the Black Hills. This led to the Battle of the Little Bighorn, June 25–26, 1876, in Montana and Custer's last stand.<sup>[1767]</sup> On February 22, 1877, the U.S. government forced the Sioux to cede their land with the Black Hills Agreement.<sup>[1768]</sup>

Harvard-educated attorney, Theodore Roosevelt saw American history as a history of expansion. He wrote a four-volume history, *The Winning of the West*, published between 1889 and 1897. Whether he was speaking or writing, he frequently used negative racial epithets. He referred to Latin Americans as Dagoes, Chinese as Chinks, Spanish as Dons, Japanese as Japs, and Indians as savages. Although he strongly opposed slavery, he believed that blacks were stupid, backward and that their presence was a tragic but irreparable mistake. He felt that the racially superior races could displace rather than allow the "inferior races" to assimilate. His racial beliefs were apparent in his mistreatment of the Indians. He wrote, "The settlement by the whites of the Indian lands was necessary to the greatness of the race and to the well-being of civilized mankind...whether the whites won the land by treaty, by armed conquest, or, as was actually the case, by a mixture of both, mattered comparatively little so long as the land was won."<sup>[1769]</sup>

Roosevelt viewed Indians as inferior, "filthy, cruel, lecherous, and faithless." To him, their life was "but a few degrees less meaningless, squalid, and ferocious than that of the wild beasts with which they held

joint ownership.” He consistently described them as ferocious, treacherous, bloodthirsty, duplicitous, and skulking. Unfortunately, his views were not unlike those of the other expansionists or the policies of each administration throughout the 19<sup>th</sup> or into the 20<sup>th</sup> century. He claimed that warfare against the indigenous population was virtuous, “The most ultimately righteous of all wars is a war with savages, though it is apt to be also the most terrible and inhuman. The rude, fierce settler who drives the savage from the land lays all civilized mankind under a debt to him.”<sup>[1770]</sup>

## **Minnesota Treaties and Land Seizures**

Secretary of War John Bell (March to September 1841), chairman of the House Indian Affairs Committee, concocted a scheme to create a northern Indian Territory. According to a provision in the Indian Appropriations Act, March 3, 1841, the government managed to purchase thirty million acres of land for \$1,300,000, which encompassed all of modern day Minnesota. In exchange, the government created a northern Indian territory for the tribes that they had deported from the Old Northwest, something they concocted as the best solution to the “Indian Problem.” Government officials promised to provide the Indians with agents, traders, schools and other beneficial amenities. Nine traders soon operated as government appointees, engaging in price fixing and eventually all trade regulation, previously handled by a comprehensive Indian trade network. Not surprisingly, the government reneged on most of the promises.<sup>[1771]</sup>

The U.S. government commissioned Wisconsin Territorial Governor, James Duane Doty to execute a treaty with the Sisseton, Wahpeton, Mdewakanton, and the Wahpekute bands, all part of the Sioux Nation, for all of their lands except small portions reserved for their homes. The Sisseton, Wahpeton and Wahpekute bands signed the treaty at the Traverse des Sioux, on the Minnesota, then part of the Iowa Territory, on July 31, 1841 and the Mdewakanton band signed the treaty on August 11, 1841. In exchange for their land, the Indians were to receive annuities, special instructions on how to be “civilized,” and sufficient land to cultivate in addition to their homes. The Indians never officially ratified the treaty but rather wholly rejected it on August 29, 1842 but they remained in Minnesota through most of the 1840s.<sup>[1772]</sup>

Michigan-born Henry Hastings Sibley, son of a Michigan Supreme Court Justice, began managing the Minnesota region for the American Fur Company, founded by John Jacob Astor on April 8, 1808 when he received a charter from the state of New York to establish a trading post at the mouth of the Columbia River. Sibley began his employment with Astor’s company on October 28, 1834, and resided in Mendota, Minnesota for the next thirty years. He was a key figure in negotiations with the Sioux and Ojibwa, formalized in the treaty signed on September 29, 1837. The treaty stated, “The chiefs and braves representing the parties having an interest therein cede to the United States all their land, east of the Mississippi river, and all their islands in the said river.” The Indians, in exchange for their lands, the U.S. government would invest the sum of \$300,000 in “safe and profitable State stocks as the President may direct,” from which the chiefs and braves would receive an annual income. The government would pay the relatives and friends of the chiefs and braves, \$110,000, distributed by the proper authorities. However, the Indians had to apply the sum of \$90,000 to the payment of just debts of the Indians. The Indian would receive an annuity of \$10,000 for twenty years, in goods, purchased under the direction of the President. The Indians had to expend the sum of \$8,250 annually for twenty years, for their benefit, for medicines, agricultural implements and stock, and for the support of a physician, farmers, and blacksmiths, and for other beneficial objects.<sup>[1773]</sup>

Further, according to the treaty, the United States would provide the agricultural implements, mechanics’ tools, cattle, and other articles, for an amount not to exceed \$10,000. Further, the Indians would expend annually, for twenty years, the sum of \$5,500 to purchase provisions.<sup>[1774]</sup> While the U.S. government offered to pay a paltry, pathetic sum to the Indians to seize thousands of acres of prime, fertile land, they

intended to recuperate every penny by promising to supply questionable-quality goods and services according to their own schedule – maybe. Given their history of warfare against the Indians and dozens of broken treaties, the Indians had no reason to trust the government.

Sibley bragged about his influence over the local Indians in a letter he wrote to the Pratte, Chouteau, and Company, dated November 3, 1850. He wrote, “The Indians are all prepared to make a treaty when we tell them to do so and such a one as I may dictate.”<sup>[1775]</sup> Pierre Chouteau, a member of a wealthy family, began trading with the Osage tribe at the age of fifteen. Later, he operated some lead mines near Dubuque, Iowa until the War of 1812.<sup>[1776]</sup> Chouteau was a member of Bernard Pratte and Company, the Western agent for John Jacob Astor’s American Fur Company beginning in 1827. Bernard Pratte, a wealthy merchant, married into the Chouteau family, had a store in St. Louis, was the trustee of the town, commissioner of rates and levies, militia captain, a member of the school board, and judge of the court of common pleas. In 1820, he was a member of the Constitutional Convention to write the first constitution for the state of Missouri. Pratte’s oldest son, Sylvestre, began trading on the Missouri River as early as 1816. Astor attempted to force them out of business but finally had to purchase them in 1827. When Astor retired in 1834, Bernard Pratte and Company bought his interest in the company and reorganized as Pratte, Chouteau, and Company. Sylvestre Pratte went to New Mexico in 1825 to establish their operations there but hostile Indians and rival trappers proved to be too much for the project.<sup>[1777]</sup>

Former Congressman Alexander Ramsey, the persuasive Territorial Governor of Minnesota (1849-1853), alerted officials in Washington that the Mdewakanton and Wahpekute Bands, the two southernmost tribes, might be willing to sell their lands. The government wanted all of the land north of the Iowa line but was only willing to pay what the land was worth to the Indians, not what it might be worth to white settlers. The government wanted to pay two or two and one half cents per acre or a bit higher, only if absolutely necessary. The Sioux already had many grievances associated with the treaty of 1837 and wished to have those addressed before they entered into any more agreements. However, Sibley and Ramsey conceived of a scheme to obtain the land – they told the Sioux they could stay on northern lands, above the Little Rapids, and allow them to hunt anywhere on the cession unoccupied by the whites if they would sell just a tiny portion of their land – twenty to twenty-five million acres. Those negotiations failed in the fall of 1849.<sup>[1778]</sup>

In September 1850, Ramsey deliberately held the Indian leaders for forty days attempting to negotiate and meanwhile the Indians missed their annual hunt. President Zachary Taylor appointed a new Commissioner of Indian Affairs, Luke Lea (1850-1853), a former Fort Leavenworth Indian Agent who believed that “civilizing” the Indians should be a high governmental priority.<sup>[1779]</sup> The government now authorized the payment of ten cents an acre and the Indians could remain on some portion of the land, as remote as possible from white settlements, only as long as the sitting President permitted their occupancy. The earlier treaty forbade isolated reservations.<sup>[1780]</sup>

On July 23, 1851, at Traverse des Sioux, the chiefs of the Wahpeton and Sisseton bands of the Upper Sioux relinquished their tribal lands in southern and western Minnesota for \$1,665,000 in cash and a program of continuous annuity goods.<sup>[1781]</sup> The Wahpeton and Sisseton were composed of about 4,000 members. They were opposed to warfare, many had converted to Christianity, and they had adopted a very agrarian lifestyle. However, the United States Senate, during the ratification process, deleted Article 3 of each treaty. The majority of the compensation went unfulfilled, never arrived, was lost en route, or was effectively stolen because of the rampant collaborative corruption existing in the Bureau of Indian Affairs. In addition, the guaranteed annuity payments went directly to the traders, allegedly to satisfy the financial obligations that the Indians had incurred with the traders.

Within two weeks, at Mendota, across from Fort Snelling, the Lower Sioux (Mdewakanton and Wahpekute) relinquished the southeastern quarter of Minnesota for \$1,441,000. They promised the Sioux, in exchange for about 24,000,000 acres of rich land, regular annuities, and two reservations twenty miles wide stretching along both sides of the upper Minnesota River. Luke Lea, Commissioner of Indian affairs, and Ramsey negotiated the treaties, designed by profit-seeking fur traders like Sibley. Many of the Indians were heavily indebted to the fur traders due to pervasive, blatant dishonesty on the part of the traders who forged treaties that would supposedly provide money to the Indians. Then, the government's cash payments would go straight into the trader's pockets while the Indians got nothing.<sup>[1782]</sup>

Both Ramsey and Sibley used the Indian System as their personal "pathway to power." The 1851 treaty promised the Santee Sioux \$475,000 for a portion of their land. Sibley pocketed \$175,000, claiming traders had underpaid him for some furs. The distrustful Indians objected but Ramsey approved the claim.<sup>[1783]</sup> <sup>[1784]</sup> Sibley was a member of Congress (1849-1853) and a member of the territorial legislature. (1855). He was the first Minnesota governor (1858-1860). Ramsey, a big Lincoln supporter, followed him as Governor of Minnesota after statehood (1860-1863).

Lea wrote in 1852, "The embarrassments, to which they (the Indians who resisted deportation and absorption) are subjected, in consequences of the onward pressure of the whites, are gradually teaching them the important lesson that they must ere long change their mode of life, or cease to exist at all. It is by industry or extinction that the problem of their destiny must be solved." In one of his reports, Lea wrote, "When civilization and barbarism are brought in such relation that they cannot coexist together it is right that the superiority of the former should be asserted and the latter compelled to give way."<sup>[1785]</sup> The once proud and independent people were now enslaved and dependent upon the unethical bureaucrats in Washington.

George W. Manypenny replaced Lea in March 1853. By this time the government was committed to a national reservation system "as a means of promoting the civilization" of the Indians.<sup>[1786]</sup>

## **Minnesota Spoils, a National Policy**

Immediately after his inauguration, Abraham Lincoln, like every other past and present politician, engaged in the spoils system of rewarding political enablers, friends or family members, qualified or not, with jobs designed to enrich the recipients while advancing questionable policies. Accordingly, Lincoln appointed Boston-born Caleb Blood Smith, a Freemason and former Chairman of the Indiana Republican delegation as the Secretary of the Interior. Lincoln appointed William P. Dole as the Commissioner of Indian Affairs to head the Office of Indian Affairs. He was a former Illinois Republican Delegate to the Republican National Convention and had played, along with numerous Socialists, a crucial role in Lincoln's nomination.

Lincoln's Administration rewarded those Republicans who had assisted the party during the 1860 election. Thomas Galbraith, who had no practical experience for the position, replaced Joseph R. Brown

as Indian Agent for the Lower Sioux Agency.<sup>[1787]</sup> Galbraith characterized the Indians as savages who embraced “theft, arson, rape and murder” contending that Indian children were raised “to regard killing as the highest of virtues.” He claimed that Indians were idle and “they are bigoted, barbarous and exceedingly superstitious.” Further, he claimed that they were ignorant, indolent, filthy, lustful, full of vice, bigoted, deluded and that they were degraded, wicked creatures in all of the habits and instincts. “This is the Sioux Indian as he is.”<sup>[1788]</sup>

Henry B. Whipple, Episcopal Bishop of Minnesota wrote to President Lincoln on March 6, 1862, calling attention to the “rapid deterioration” among the tribes since they relinquished their lands to the United States. He denounced the incompetent Indian Agents, who were supposed to represent the government with “honor and faith.” Congress rewards people with a \$1,500 a year job for their “party work” and that person can, through theft and deceit, acquire enough money to retire within four years with a fortune. Whipple suggested that the government hire men who were honest, temperate, industrious, and with “unquestioned integrity” instead of “so many drudges fed at the public crib.” He wanted the government to treat the Indians as a ward of the government, teaching him how to build a house, manage a farm, and provide education for his children and equality before the law.<sup>[1789]</sup>

Author David A. Nichols describes Lincoln’s Indian System as institutionalized corruption, “a vehicle for economic gain,” and the continuation of a program of deception and fraud that was “integral to the System” since the establishment of the agency. The only benefactors were the government agents, officers, and traders who plundered Indian property and the government’s constant “flow of funds,” while pretending to serve Indian needs, a primary factor in the Indian’s disgruntlement and discouragement. During Lincoln’s Administration, the system increased with the addition of three dozen new agencies. The General Land Office, the Department of the Interior and the army were closely allied with the Indian System. The army resolved the inevitable clashes between settlers and the Indians and often “supervised” the indigenous populations during frequent relocations.<sup>[1790]</sup>

The government set aside annuity funds for the tribes, which white claimants continually exploited. Congressional representatives, aware of the amount in the government coffers, frequently filed claims, which their accommodating colleagues quickly passed. As long as available money existed, officials paid claims for substantial amounts without adequate investigation. Since Indians did not vote and had no representation other than government-appointed agents, misuse of resources and manipulation were rampant. Lincoln’s Administration gave Robert W. S. Stevens, a Kansas attorney, banker, businessman, land speculator and proponent of education modernization a contract to construct buildings at the Sac and Fox Indian reservations in Kansas. Commissioner Dole purchased some of the Sac and Fox trust lands in 1864 in partnership with Interior Secretary John P. Usher, Controller of the Currency Hugh McCulloch, and John G. Nicolay, Lincoln’s personal secretary.<sup>[1791]</sup>

President Buchanan had previously rewarded Stevens’ political loyalty by appointing him as special U.S. Indian commissioner. His assignment included the orchestrated sale of Kaskaskia, Peoria, Piankashaw and Wea tribal lands, which they ceded to the U.S. in 1854. Stevens supervised the construction of what was to become the Missouri–Kansas–Texas Railroad, incorporated May 23, 1870, and obtained an exclusive contract to build through Indian Territory (Oklahoma) with a final destination in Texas for the primary purpose of accessing that state’s numerous resources.<sup>[1792]</sup>

The government licensed white traders, which led to the development of profitable commercial monopolies. The traders, happy to take whatever money the tribes had, became the primary link between the Indian and the non-Indian world. Whoever controls the distribution of commodities and the flow of communication controls the people who wholly depend on those goods and services. The Indian Agents directed the dispersal of trading licenses, used as kickbacks or they gave them to relatives and friends.<sup>[1793]</sup>

Nothing has changed since then, whether we are discussing contemporary Chicago politics or the graft and corruption of 1860s officialdom.

Government officials awarded contracts of every description, including contracts for vaccinating the Indians against smallpox, the first vaccine to be developed. Given that certain people in the government “regarded the Indians as troublesome vermin,” these vaccines, perhaps polluted, could have been used as biological warfare. Earlier, government officials distributed among them “clothing known to be infected with smallpox, diphtheria, or other diseases to which Indians had little resistance.” As a result, there is a definitive absence of the indigenous populations throughout the Americas where they once thrived. Fiendish individuals who “thought the slaughter was justifiable, or even moral” deliberately exterminated these vulnerable, primitive peoples.<sup>[1794]</sup>

Senator Morton Wilkinson, a native New Yorker, lawyer and a Freemason,<sup>[1795]</sup> had moved to Minnesota in 1847. In addition to being a U.S. Senator, he was a member of the U.S. House of Representatives (1869-1871). He secured political appointments for specific people through his crony, Secretary of State William Henry Seward (1861-1869), a lawyer and former New York governor. Wilkinson got Clark W. Thompson, a Minnesota businessman, banker and railroad speculator, appointed to the Northern Superintendency in the Indian System. Thompson, who had minimal concern for the Indians, distributed the annuity payments to the Sioux and made recommendations for patronage jobs under his jurisdiction. He continued his normal business activities and kept in close contact with Cyrus Aldrich. The financial demands of Lincoln’s War influenced the federal government’s treaty obligations and the funding that Thompson depended on to pay private contractors, supposedly supplying services for the Sioux. These contractors were actually extracting natural resources, for financial benefit, for themselves and their friends and relatives.<sup>[1796]</sup>

Minnesota Congressman Cyrus Aldrich (1859-1863) was born in Rhode Island. He may have been related to another native Rhode Islander Nelson W. Aldrich, a devoted Freemason<sup>[1797]</sup> and author of the Federal Reserve Act. Their familial connections are uncertain but the obvious evidence of common characteristics of political corruption suggests a family relationship. The local Masonic Order attended Cyrus Aldrich’s funeral, a strong indication that he, like Nelson Aldrich, was also a Freemason.<sup>[1798]</sup> He chaired the Committee on Indian Affairs. Aldrich and Governor Ramsey had supported Lincoln’s presidential nomination.

On August 10, 1861, Cyrus Aldrich and Senator James Doolittle recommended George E. H. Day as a special commissioner to promote peace among the Indians while the Union was busy fighting a war. Unexpectedly, George Day, unfamiliar with the corrupt political network leading directly back to Washington, decided to expose the treachery in the Northern Superintendency. Certain compromised politicians would not cooperate with him. By October, he reported numerous and “outrageous frauds” perpetrated against the Indians with virtually no oversight. He was flabbergasted by this “perfect system of plunder” and actually thought that the “honest Republican Administration” with “Honest Abe” was above such dishonesty. He exposed the fact that over 100 Winnebago Indians had perished from treatable diseases while others were ill and still unattended. The government paid a Dr. Townsend an annual salary of \$4,000 but the good doctor had never even visited the reservation.<sup>[1799]</sup> Doolittle later became a Chicago lawyer and was President of the University of Chicago for a year.

Money was tight but the Northern Superintendency always managed to get its share. Senator Henry Rice, in early 1861, claimed that he should be paid \$24,000 for directing Indian removal. Galbraith, the Santee Sioux Agent, thought it was appropriate to defraud the Indian Office and claimed the Agency owed him \$52,000 in January 1862. He assured Thompson that the other insiders would cooperate in the public plunder. Cyrus Aldrich also managed to get no-bid contracts for local Republicans who were “deserving

of and entitled to a share of the spoils.” There were people on the payroll who did not actually work. Apparently, all the politicians had cronies they wished to endow with government money meant to supply basic Indian needs, according to the various treaty obligations.<sup>[1800]</sup>

Corruption among political appointees in Minnesota matched the blatant dishonesty exhibited elsewhere. Agents used their positions primarily to plunder public funds. Minnesota Congressmen funneled Indian money to their favorite constituents. Under the guise of making improvements on the Winnebago reservation, Wilkinson requested \$50,000 from the Indian funds, which his acquiescent Congressional cronies quickly approved. Local Indian agents used the funds to hire certain politically connected friends.<sup>[1801]</sup>

Commissioner Dole attempted to underhandedly sidetrack George Day’s investigation. No one anticipated his principled veracity. He refused to “go along to get along” with the politicians who wanted him to discontinue his investigation. He had discovered that Thompson’s predecessor had personally spent, through kickbacks, money under the table, collaboration with local merchants, between \$100,000 and \$200,000 during years where he had earned only \$2,000 per year. Another man by the name of Morrison was cutting timber illegally on the reservation land. Dole had authorized it and was probably getting a cut of the profits. He threatened to suspend Day while other politicians, including Assistant Commissioner Charles Mix, vehemently denied his charges. Mix made a bargain with the government for which he received payment from the Indian’s annuity funds, to supply pork to the Indians. However, he knowingly delivered putrid spoiled meat.<sup>[1802]</sup>

In order to eliminate Day and silence his accusations, Dole directed Thompson to inspect Day’s expense accounts. Predictably, Thompson found irregularities suggesting that he was dishonest in his assessments about their activities. That is how most politicians typically operate – they accuse others of behavior and crimes they themselves invariably commit. Day then went over Dole’s head straight to Lincoln who completely disregarded his charges. Day resigned and began working for the Winnebago Indians in an attempt to recoup some of their stolen funds.<sup>[1803]</sup> Investigators, whistle-blowers and journalists typically realize that their efforts backfire only to create havoc in their own lives. Institutionalized corruption, not only in the Indian System but also in every bureaucratic agency and administration, continues to this day like a persistent filthy pestilence hanging over Washington.

Day was not the only whistle-blower. Others warned of the volatile situation in Minnesota. Widespread deception and discrimination against the Indians, aided by government officials, was bound to erupt in retaliatory violence. The Sioux were starving and unable to buy necessities from the local “disreputable traders” who regularly cheated them.

## **Kansas Spoils and the Politicians**

The Moravian Delaware Indians lived in the village of Languntinnenk located near Darlington, Beaver County, Pennsylvania and in Lawunkhannek, a village established in 1769, on the Allegheny River above Franklin, Venango County, Pennsylvania and in the village of Wechquetank located about eight miles beyond the Blue Ridge, northwest from Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, probably near the present day Mauch Chunk. They also lived in the village of Lichtenau, on the east side of the Muskingum River, three miles below Coshocton, Ohio and in the village of Salem located on the west bank of Tuscarawas River 1.5 miles southwest of Port Washington, Tuscarawas County, Ohio.<sup>[1804]</sup>

The white conquerors demanded that the Moravian Delaware Indians convert to Christianity, either that or face death. The Indians complied. Then later, in 1781-1782, Colonel David Williamson, leading the U.S. troops, destroyed the Indian’s corn and other food crops to the point that they were starving to death. The Indians, desperate at that point, had no choice but to believe Colonel Williamson when he offered his

sympathy and promised to lead them to a secure area where there was plenty of food for them to eat. The Indians, now Christians, agreed to go with the whites after they had lengthy conversations among themselves. Additionally, they went to invite their neighbors in the Salem fields. The militia confiscated all of the Indian's guns and knives, promising to return them later. After all, these Christian Indians had nothing to fear from the white Christian troops who were genuinely interested in the Indian's welfare. However, as soon as the Indians were weaponless, the militia accused them of being murderers and thieves. The Indians sang hymns and prayed throughout the night. Before dawn, the militia attacked. Some of the Indians knelt before their assailants and, in perfect English, begged for their lives. The militia brutally murdered twenty-nine men, twenty-seven women, and thirty-four children. Two people feigned death and then escaped while the members of the militia were busy scalping their victims.<sup>[1805]</sup>

The Trade and Intercourse Acts (1790-1834) were a series of statutes that legalized regulatory authority over U.S. citizens who interacted with the native population. Several other laws replaced the 1790 Act. Legislators initially designed the laws to punish individuals who were guilty of "non-commercial crimes in Indian Country." However, people soon began interpreting these laws as "binding upon the conduct of the Indians as well as U.S. nationals."<sup>[1806]</sup>

On June 30, 1834, the Jackson Administration enacted the Indian Intercourse Act, which authorized the establishment of a government network of licensed trading posts supposedly to "protect the tribes from unscrupulous private traders." The legislators devised the advantageous law to exploit the Indians, and seize their land in exchange for essential supplies like food. The government maneuvered the Indians into a state of dependency and then withdrew those crucial benefits until the Indians forfeited their land in order to keep from starving to death. The Treaty of Fort Clark is an example of this kind of deception in which the Osage Nation exchanged most of Missouri in order to access Fort Clark. As a result, the native population moved west into the area now known as Kansas.

This area was supposed to be Indian Territory where any white settlement was totally prohibited; at least that is what the government told the Indians. On May 30, 1854, government officials organized the Kansas Territory and opened it for settlement. Individuals and land speculators inundated the territory, either to homestead or to exploit land and resources. They circumvented the federal Indian agents and ignored the 1834 law. Trespassers invaded and squatted on choice Indian lands, stole the timber and other natural resources. Hundreds of pro-slavery Missourians crossed into the adjacent territory shortly after the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act, May 30, 1854, which created the territories of Kansas and Nebraska. The law allowed the people in those territories to decide whether to allow slavery within their borders. The newly created Republican Party promoted the legislation in order to gain access to land to build the Transcontinental Railroad.

Sectional tensions escalated after Congress organized the Kansas Territory and placed the slavery issue into the hands of the citizens in that territory. Both the North and the South rushed voters to the area. Pro-slavery ruffians slipped over the Missouri border to cast a vote, which gave that side a victory. The territorial governor discredited the election results, which created massive unrest and bloodshed and further polarized the country.<sup>[1807]</sup> In 1857, to add more fuel to the proverbial fire, the U.S. Supreme Court in the Dred Scott decision, declared, "No person shall...be deprived of life, liberty or property without due process of law." The law considered slaves as property, rather than people. Accordingly, slaveholders could take their legitimate property anywhere they wanted within the country.<sup>[1808]</sup>

The Moravian Munsee, also called the Christian Indians, owned a 2,571-acre tract of land located two miles from Fort Leavenworth, Kansas where the government stationed territorial and military officers. This land, never part of the public domain, was not subject to the federal land policies of preemption and homestead. However, squatters, land and railroad speculators lusted after this fertile land. If or when the

original owners, the Indians, ceded their land, the authorities transferred it directly to individuals, companies or to the U.S. who would then sell it on behalf of the Indians.<sup>[1809]</sup> On March 8, 1782, General William Irvine led a group of troops in the cold-blooded murder of ninety-six Moravian Delaware Indians at Gnadenhütten, Ohio. The Indians were unable to escape to the woods or to the fort.<sup>[1810]</sup>

The Munsee/Christian Indians repeatedly relocated to avoid the white infiltration and they ultimately settled on the Delaware reservation in Kansas, per an agreement with the Delaware Indians signed on May 6, 1854. The Christian Indians settled on adjacent lands, perfect for farming, while the more powerful Delawares moved to a more remote location. The government authorized the settlers to purchase, directly from the Delawares, four sections of land near Leavenworth. They literally surrounded the Christian Indian lands adjacent the rich Missouri River. On November 22, 1856, George W. Manypenny, the Commissioner of Indian Affairs (1853-1857), in his Annual Report said, regarding the Christian Indians, “They must meet their fate upon their present reservations in that Territory, and there be made a civilized people, or crushed and blotted out.”<sup>[1811]</sup>

Amherst College-educated Samuel C. Pomeroy, a financial agent for the New England Emigrant Aid Society, was an enthusiastic opponent of slavery in 1840. In August 1854, he left Boston for Kansas with a group of 200 people.<sup>[1812]</sup> The company he represented was actually a moneymaking organization created specifically to relocate free-soilers to Kansas. Three opportunists, Eli Thayer, Alexander H. Bullock and Edward Everett Hale organized it in 1854 and incorporated it on February 21, 1855. The company constantly interfered in territorial matters and was deeply involved in the bleeding Kansas struggle, which viciously targeted Lawrence, Kansas in the summer 1856.<sup>[1813]</sup>

In May 1855, the resident Indian Agent warned several squatters to move. There were at least fifteen families but they ignored the agent’s request. They remained and continued stripping the land of the commercially valuable timber, a vital source of income for the tribe. The administration would not allow troops to expel the intruders but merely noted that people were violating federal laws. By 1857, Samuel D. Lecompte, one of the many squatters, attempted to establish a claim in order to re-sell 160 acres for \$1,900. Squatters assumed that preemption privileges existed on the Christian Indian lands, despite statements to the contrary from local government officials. Another trespasser illegally offered two other 160-acre tracts for sale at \$1,500 and \$1,000 respectively,<sup>[1814]</sup> despite the fifty-two treaties with various Indian tribes, just since March 4, 1853.<sup>[1815]</sup>

Dr. Charles Robinson, former agent for the New England Emigrant Aid Society and Samuel C. Pomeroy, the current agent for the Society’s interests in Kansas attempted to privately purchase the Christian Indians entire tract of land for \$37,000. Governor Andrew Reeder, because of his authoritative position, had already fraudulently bought some tracts of land. Benjamin F. Robinson, Delaware Indian Agent, objected to these unlawful sales. Commissioner Manypenny rejected the governor’s purchase and sought to prosecute the buyers. William H. Russell, of the firm of Russell, Waddell and Majors, offered \$51,200 for the Christian Indians entire tract. Russell was crony-close to Luke Lea, former Commissioner of Indian Affairs (1850-1853). Despite his friendship with the ex-commissioner, officials rejected Russell’s offer.<sup>[1816]</sup>

President Franklin Pierce appointed Andrew Jackson Isaacs as the Attorney General for the Kansas Territory (1854-1857). Isaacs intended to buy the entire tract directly from the Indians. He had already illegally purchased 2,300 acres of “half-breed” land. With his connections to an influential group of Kansas capitalists – William H. Russell, Alexander Majors, Amos Rees and Hugh Boyle Ewing, he devised a moneymaking scheme. They organized the Leavenworth Fire and Marine Insurance Co., capitalized by the Kansas Valley Bank with \$50,000. They also organized the Leavenworth, Pawnee and Western Railroad, a possible transcontinental railroad hub, which they hoped would receive subsidies

from Congress. The railroad, later known as the Union Pacific, Eastern division, and then as the Kansas Pacific, received government funds from 1860 to 1865. Isaacs wanted the Christian Indian land for the railroad. Robinson and Pomeroy wanted the land for the Missouri River and Rocky Mountain Railroad.<sup>[1817]</sup>

Isaacs resigned as the Kansas Territory Attorney General in March 1857 and then attempted to buy the land by manipulating the laws. Isaacs and his congressional friends altered the 1854 treaty on April 7, 1858, which cleared Isaacs for the sale. As long as the tribe had actual title, they could dispose of the land as they decided or if scheming investors convinced them with promises that they never fulfilled. Gottlieb Oehler, a Moravian missionary to the tribe, revealed that Isaacs got the three tribal leaders drunk and induced them to sell the land. However, Congress still had to consent to any purchase. Eight days after Congress issued the patent, Isaacs purchased 2,571 acres for \$43,400. He also made deals with the General Land Office and the Indian Office to get confirmation of the sale. He even managed to get the price reduced to \$40,960.<sup>[1818]</sup>

On April 17, 1857, President Buchanan appointed General James W. Denver as Commissioner of Indian Affairs, but he resigned on June 17, 1857. Buchanan then appointed him as the Kansas Territorial Governor in December 1857. According to Oehler, Isaacs misrepresented the sale details to the Interior Secretary. Oehler later revealed, on November 23, 1862, that Denver actually owned a share in that land and had assisted Isaacs. Indian Agents, missionaries and Christian Indians protested the sale to officials at the Department of the Interior. Isaacs claimed that “selfish grasping people” were behind the criticism of the sale.<sup>[1819]</sup>

On January 29, 1861, lame duck President Buchanan signed the bill to admit Kansas into the Union, which immediately brought out the radicals and extremists who had caused the ongoing bitter abolitionist controversy. James H. Lane was one of the most radical. On April 15, 1861, when Lincoln called for volunteers, Lane, within three days, assembled a group of warriors who people later referred to as the Jayhawks. Lane, a skilled agitator, and his warriors were impatient to start their violent marauding. On a visit to Washington, Lane, referring to the Confederates, told Carl Schurz, “We have got to whip these scoundrels like hell. They did a good thing...shooting away the flag at Sumter. It has set the great North a-howling for blood, and they’ll have it.” Schurz’s influence may have helped Lane obtain the senatorial appointment in the new state of Kansas. The first state legislature convened on March 26, 1861. After the promise of future spoils and a lot of verbal arm-twisting pressure, the legislature elected Lane and Pomeroy as U.S. Senators.<sup>[1820]</sup>

Senator Lane (1861-1866) of Lawrence, Kansas regularly visited Lincoln and provided Jayhawk bodyguards following the Fort Sumter assault. On the night of April 18, 1861, Lincoln was grateful for the fifty Kansas warriors who had come to Washington to seek office but who Lane posted in the White House to guard him. Lane had arranged for this special sentry service as a favor. From then on, Lincoln viewed Lane, an opportunistic demagogue, as one of his favorite followers.<sup>[1821]</sup>

The very people who were supposed to administer the program exploited the Indian System, designed to assist and protect the Indians from mistreatment. Lincoln was more concerned about where the Kansas Indians stood on the issue of the impending conflict. In 1861, Lincoln sent Henry C. Whitney, Thomas C. Slaughter, also the Assessor of Internal Revenue and Augustus Wattles, a virulent abolitionist, to the Kansas Indian tribes to determine their loyalty to the Union. Given the condition of the Indians, after smallpox epidemics, starvation and exposure, Union loyalty was probably not a priority. The agent’s reports indicated that the Sac and Fox Indians were “squalid and miserable” and “the most destitute.” Corrupt traders had repeatedly cheated them and they were without basic provisions, including shelter. The women and children were particularly thin, hungry and literally starving on one meager meal a day.

Senator Samuel C. Pomeroy finagled 90,000 thousand acres of Pottawatomie land after helping to negotiate a treaty with them. He got 50,000 acres of Kickapoo land using the same tactics. In July 1862, he concocted a plan to seize Indian funds. The government granted an exclusive license to J. K. Tappan of New York, perhaps related to the wealthy New York merchants, to sell commodities to the Pottawatomies. The merchant would charge those commodity orders against the Indian's annuities. Pomeroy and William Wallace Ross, appointed as government agent to the Pottawatomie on April 29, 1861, would skim off a quarter of the profits with each payment. Indian Commissioner, William P. Dole went along with this nefarious scheme.[\[1824\]](#) [\[1825\]](#) The first governor of Kansas was Amherst College-educated Charles Lawrence Robinson, who like Pomeroy had been an agent of the New England Emigrant Aid Society in Kansas.

The minority Republican elite in New York City, like the Tappan brothers, viewed Lincoln's War as a great opportunity for "consolidating its power and expanding its influence."[\[1826\]](#) The Tappan brothers had established the first credit-rating system in the country, the Mercantile Agency in 1841 in New York, the precursor to Dun & Bradstreet (D&B), a NYSE listed company that is still in existence today, and the modern credit reporting services.[\[1827\]](#)

Senator Lane wanted to organize and lead a Kansas Brigade on a military expedition against the South in Texas and Arkansas, allegedly to shorten the war. He apparently exercised more control over military actions in Kansas than Governor Charles Robinson did. Lane, known to be unprincipled and volatile, had the support of William G. Coffin, head of the Southern Superintendency. In June 1861, his constant badgering finally won him authorization to organize the Kansas Brigade, a combination of drifters, blacks and Indians. Lane wanted an officer's commission but was intent on retaining his seat in the U.S. Senate.

[\[1828\]](#)

On September 12, 1861, to suppress any kind of secessionist sentiment and provide an intimidating demonstration, Lane and 1500 radical Jayhawk abolitionists, known as the Kansas Brigade, crossed into Missouri, a neutral state. "Bloody Jim" Lane wanted to extricate the citizens of the Osage Valley and assault and plunder the towns of Butler, Harrisonville, Clinton and Osceola. After crossing the border, Lane's men, with his urging, began to loot, burn, murder and rape the hapless citizens. Several chaplains enthusiastically participated in Lane's terrorist activities and apparently saw nothing wrong with plundering and acquiring the "spoils of ungodly altars." On September 23, 1861, they entered the town of Osceola. After murdering nine residents, they robbed the bank, pillaged several stores and private homes and then nearly burned the entire town, allegedly a military necessity. Lane's booty included a piano and numerous silk dresses. The brigade's three-week rampage ended on September 29, 1861 and then disbanded.[\[1829\]](#)

Lane and his terrorists rationalized the plundering and arson of Osceola as retaliation for a recent Confederate raid on Humboldt, Kansas. A newspaper journalist who accompanied the rampage said that when the question arose about burning the town, the officers all agreed it should be done as (1) Osceola was "traitorous to the cause; (2) that the enemy intended to make the town a military post; (3) and that it was a strong position" (4) since it could not be permanently occupied, it should be made uninhabitable. The marauders attempted to convince others that every house in Osceola warehoused gunpowder. They were simply a self-righteous, murderous, looting mob that wantonly burned Osceola because wartime, then and now, provides opportunities for people to commit despicable, contemptible crimes that they would be reluctant to perpetrate under ordinary circumstances.[\[1830\]](#)

## **The Indian Massacre and Removal in Colorado**

A cholera epidemic decimated the Cheyennes after 1849, the source of which was the emigrants on the Oregon Trail. Hundreds of Indians perished. Smallpox and cholera allegedly resulted from commerce between Indians and Euro-Americans.<sup>[1831]</sup> Other groups of emigrants arrived in Colorado because of the Pike's Peak gold Rush, also known as the Colorado Gold Rush that began in July 1858. The founding of Denver in November 1858 forced the relocation of the Cheyennes from their prime buffalo ranges. By spring 1859, tens of thousands of gold seekers arrived.<sup>[1832]</sup> Gold discovery on Indian lands brought "a greedy population thirsting for gold." On February 18, 1861, government officials imposed The Treaty of Fort Wise upon the Southern Cheyenne and four of the Arapaho Indian tribes. The U.S. government, through this treaty, compelled the Indians to move from their land, a huge range, filled with game, to an area one-thirteenth the size of their former reserve, a small triangular tract, designated as the Sand Creek Reservation.<sup>[1833]</sup>

On July 26, 1861, officials appointed Major Samuel G. Colley, at Fort Lyon, as an Indian agent for the Upper Arkansas Agency, which served the Indians in eastern Colorado and western Kansas, the Cheyennes and the Arapahos.<sup>[1834]</sup> Colley had been a gold prospector and politician before his conflict-of-interest appointment as an Indian agent. He and his son Dexter, a trader, had swindled the Indians for years. Colley had diverted the Indian's annuity goods to his son who then sold them back to the Indians. By 1863, the tribes were starving and suffering with malnutrition-related diseases. The buffalo herds, their main food source, were at least 200 miles away. Therefore, the desperate Indians began attacking and robbing wagon trains, only seeking food, not to harm the travelers.<sup>[1835]</sup> Colley, decidedly indifferent, said, "I now think that a little powder and lead is the best food for them."<sup>[1836]</sup>

Colorado Governor John Evans (1862-1865), a medical doctor, while living in Chicago, studied the cholera epidemic of 1848-1849 and then helped to develop Congressional quarantine laws. He taught at Rush Medical College and was one of the founders of Northwestern University and Evanston, Illinois, which people named in his honor. Evans, a dedicated Freemason, grew wealthy from his investments in the Chicago & Fort Wayne and the Chicago & Evanston Railroads. His wealth helped him to influence politics. He founded the Illinois Republican Party, ran for Congress and was a personal friend of Lincoln, who appointed him as the second governor of the Colorado Territory on March 31, 1862 in order to save the Colorado Territory for the Union. Evans discovered, upon arrival in Denver, that many Freemasons opposed the Union. Therefore, he organized the Union Lodge to support the Union.<sup>[1837]</sup>

On April 11, 1864, W. D. Ripley, a rancher, arrived at Camp Sanborn complaining that the Indians had driven some stock from his ranch on the Bijou Creek, a claim that individuals never verified. He also reported that the Indians were taking down telegraph lines and driving the animals off their ranches.<sup>[1838]</sup> The ranchers regularly blamed the Indians whenever cattle or horses strayed from local ranches. Lieutenant Clark Dunn took forty men, along with Ripley, and went out to reclaim stock and in the process, disarm the Indians. A few Indians were in possession of some horses, which the Indians said they had found. They willingly turned the animals over to Ripley but somehow a scuffle ensued and two soldiers were killed and as many as a dozen Indians. This incident necessitated a war, as the Colorado authorities viewed it. State officials called for volunteers to wage war against the Indians. Governor Evans "had advocated war with the Plains Indians from the time he took office."<sup>[1839]</sup>

Major Jacob Downing, originally from Albany, New York, went to Camp Sanborn to devise a war strategy. On April 18, 1864, there was a rumor that Cheyennes had driven a family from a ranch on the South Platte. Downing took about sixty men and went along the river for at least fifty miles but saw no abandoned ranch and no homeless settlers. He returned to Camp Sanborn, gathered forty men and proceeded to find a Cheyenne village at Cedar Canyon. He described it later, "We commenced shooting. I ordered the men to commence killing them...I burnt up their lodges and everything I could get hold of..."

We captured about one hundred head of stock, which was distributed among the boys.” The likelihood of plunder probably motivated the “boys” to wage inequitable war against the Indians and might even make them initiate the disturbance just to collect the spoils.<sup>[1840]</sup>

Governor Evans appointed Reverend John M. Chivington, an anti-slavery Methodist Minister as Colonel of the Colorado Volunteers. Major Edward Wynkoop, of the First Colorado Volunteer Cavalry, took command of Fort Lyon on May 9, 1864 and established a second base at Camp Wynkoop, sixty miles down the Arkansas River. Wynkoop asked for instructions from Colonel Chivington and in a dispatch dated May 31, 1864; Chivington told him “The Cheyenne will have to be soundly whipped before they will be quiet. If any of them are caught in your vicinity kill them, as that is the only way.”<sup>[1841]</sup> Chivington, the former Christian minister, told his soldiers to “kill all their squaws and papooses.” In a speech in Denver, he advocated the scalping of infants.<sup>[1842]</sup> He directed his troops to “kill and scalp all, little and big, Nits make lice.”<sup>[1843]</sup>

On June 24, 1864, Evans issued a notice demanding that Plains Indians report to specific forts to “avoid being killed by Mistake” – Fort Lyon, Fort Larned, Camp Collins or Fort Laramie. Evans supported the government’s concentration policy regarding the Indians. He claimed that the concentration policy was to protect friendly Indians from falling victim to soldiers who might mistake them as hostile. Of course, it was up to the soldier to discriminate between a hostile and a non-hostile Indian.<sup>[1844]</sup> He declared, “Any man who kills a hostile Indian is a patriot!”<sup>[1845]</sup>

On August 11, 1864, Evans declared Martial Law and ordered all able-bodied men to take up arms against hostile Indians in the protection of their homes and families – “kill and destroy as enemies of the country, wherever they may be found, all such hostile Indians.” The implications were that the residents were not to kill friendly Indians. However, residents found it easier to shoot first without regard to the Indian’s intentions. The War Department authorized a militia force to serve exclusively for the slaughter of Indians. Lincoln paid little attention to what was going on in Colorado but rather left it to his trusty old friend while he put his efforts into his reelection campaign.<sup>[1846]</sup> Citizens could hunt down and kill all hostile Indians. Every Indian was “at the mercy of any revengeful emigrant” who had ever encountered any hostile Indian. It authorized any man to shoot any Indian and seize his pony or any other property as a lawful prize.<sup>[1847]</sup>

After a brutal six-month war, Wynkoop extended peace and invited the Indians to move closer to Fort Lyon. He promised them protection. He was suddenly relieved of his command. However, based on those promises, friendly Indians moved to Sand Creek, with every assurance of peace. Major Scott Anthony, a Freemason and former gold prospector in California, took command of Fort Lyon on November 2, 1864. He told the Indians he did not have the authority to make peace with them. There were 652 Arapahos within a mile of the post in addition to the Cheyennes camped on Sand Creek, about forty miles north of Fort Lyon. He told them they could stay if they relinquished their arms and surrendered as prisoners of war. They agreed and handed over some old worthless arms. He fed the starving Arapahos for about ten days, and then told them he could no longer feed them, returned their guns and told them to go hunt buffalo.<sup>[1848]</sup>

Colonel Chivington conducted the bloody Sand Creek Massacre against the Indians in the cold early morning hours on November 29, 1864. About 600 Southern Cheyenne and Arapaho Indians, more than two-thirds of them women and children, were camped at Sand Creek, under a U.S. flag, given to Black Kettle, a Cheyenne chief, by Lincoln in 1863 when they met in Washington.<sup>[1849]</sup> Two months before, Black Kettle told Evans, “I want you to give all these chiefs of the soldiers here to understand that we are at peace, and that we have made peace, that we may not be mistaken for enemies.”

Chivington’s troops slaughtered at least 130 Cheyenne, many of them women and children. Then the

“gallant” Colonel Chivington returned to Denver to a hero’s welcome. Evans decorated him and his men for their valor. For political reasons, Denver citizens had “been led to believe the Indian menace to be far greater than it actually was” and were jubilant over the “glorious victory.”<sup>[1850]</sup>

Major Wynkoop and Lt. Colonel Samuel Tappan pressured Congress to investigate the Sand Creek incident, as they viewed it as a massacre. Captain Soule and Lt. Joseph Cramer had defied Chivington’s orders and refused to attack the Indian’s camp. Soule gave damning evidence against Chivington and was murdered shortly thereafter on April 23, 1865. Agent Colley testified before a commission that the Cheyenne and the Arapaho settled at Sand Creek at Governor Evans’s invitation.<sup>[1851]</sup> After all, if people slaughtered all of the Indians, Colley would not be able to fleece them.

On April 26, 1865, Congress questioned Colonel Chivington who testified that he had 750 well-equipped troops under his command, in addition to four 12-pound mountain howitzers. He stated there were about 1,100 or 1,200 Indians, 700 of whom were warriors. He admitted that it was a surprise, sunrise attack. He said, “To oppose my troops... (They) were soon fighting desperately.” He surmised that his group had killed as many as 500 or 600 warriors. He claimed he did not know how many women and children had lost their lives. He lost seven men with forty-seven wounded. He stated, “I saw but one woman who had been killed, and one who had hanged herself. I saw no dead children.” Chivington’s men stole 600 horses, mules, and ponies and about 100 buffalo robes.<sup>[1852]</sup> Contrary to his testimony, many of the men were away on a buffalo hunt.<sup>[1853]</sup>

Congressional conclusions regarding Sand Creek were very unpopular in Colorado and elsewhere. On July 18, 1865, President Andrew Johnson asked Evans to resign. Evans, to maintain his tough reputation against the “enemies” in Colorado, wrote a rebuttal to their report dated August 6, 1865. He continued to chair the Denver Seminary Board of Trustees.<sup>[1854]</sup> In 1865, further investigations of the Joint Special Committee of Congress revealed that both citizens and military troops participated in the massacre. Despite this, there was no disciplinary action. By mid-1865, the whites had completely driven the Cheyenne and Arapaho tribes from Colorado.<sup>[1855]</sup>

After the Sand Creek Massacre, Evans focused on the development of Colorado’s railroads. He envisioned Denver as the future hub of the railroad industry and the capitol of the Rocky Mountain Empire. He obtained federal land grants and county bonds to construct a Union Pacific line from Cheyenne to Denver, which opened on June 24, 1870. He was the principle financier of Denver’s railroad empire, with lines into the Colorado mining district. He later sold the line to Jay Gould.<sup>[1856]</sup>

Years later, Theodore Roosevelt defended the army’s massacre of the Cheyennes as “on the whole as righteous and beneficial a deed as ever took place on the frontier.” He conceded “certain most objectionable details,” without indicating that those details included the indiscriminate slaughter of men, women, and children, whose chief, Black Kettle, was flying a white flag.<sup>[1857]</sup>

## Neutrality = Death

### Opothleyahola and the Refugees

On March 4, 1861, the Confederate Congress adopted a resolution introduced by Secretary of State Robert Toombs, a Freemason from Georgia. This resolution authorized President Jefferson Davis to appoint a special agent to the Indian tribes west of the state of Arkansas.<sup>[1858]</sup> President Davis, a Freemason, selected Albert Pike for that important mission.<sup>[1859]</sup> Secretary Toombs and Pike were friends and fellow Masons.<sup>[1860]</sup> Pike acted under the direction of the State Department as he regularly reported to Secretary Toombs about Indian affairs until July 1861 when he resigned to become a general in the Confederate Army.<sup>[1861]</sup>

Now that it appeared advantageous to the white agenda, a friendly alliance with the Indians was strategically fundamental. On March 15, 1861, The Provisional Congress established the Bureau of Indian Affairs, under the direction of the War Department. President Davis appointed David Hubbard as Commissioner of Indian affairs.<sup>[1862]</sup> The Confederacy outlined their Indian policies in *An act for the protection of certain Indian tribes*, passed by the Provisional Congress on May 17, 1861.<sup>[1863]</sup> Davis sent a copy to Pike to serve as a blueprint for negotiating with the Indians. Apparently, there are no extant copies of that document available.<sup>[1864]</sup> On March 15, 1861, the Confederacy established the Bureau of Indian Affairs and with the exception of Cherokee Chief John Ross made alliance treaties with most of the tribes in order to expand their territory and control the Indians. In 1838, Chief Ross had led his people from Georgia, known as the infamous “trail of tears” to Indian Territory, comprising present-day Oklahoma. Opportunists had used their government connections to forcibly relocate over sixty tribes into this inauspicious territory.<sup>[1865]</sup>

To garner Indian support, some Southerners claimed that Lincoln would invade the Indian Territory. That was not an unreasonable claim considering their numerous negative experiences with federal land seizures. The Union planned to physically withdraw from low priority Indian Territory and take all of the resources that the Indians depended upon. On April 12, 1861, the day the Confederates fired on Fort Sumter, Senator elect Pomeroy, from Kansas persuaded Commissioner William P. Dole to meet the government’s financial treaty obligations in some other way instead of abandoning the Indians without any

essential goods. Agent John Crawford, a secessionist sympathizer, urged Dole to take quick action. The Indians, without supplies from the Union, would need assistance.<sup>[1866]</sup>

The Five Civilized Tribes, the Cherokees, Creeks, Choctaws, Chickasaws and Seminoles, and other Indian tribes living in the Indian Territory should have been a greater concern to the Northerners who were contemplating an invasion of the South. Geography in wartime is crucial and that area, depending on which side controlled it, they could utilize it as a base from which to attack.<sup>[1867]</sup> Lincoln, more concerned about the Border States and Washington, abandoned military posts there on May 18, 1861, leaving the tribes hungry and with no alternative but to join the South. On May 17, 1861, the South annexed the Indian Territory. The Chickasaws joined the South on May 25, 1861. By August 21, 1861 Chief Ross, who saw the Lincoln administration as guilty of crimes against the Constitution and humanity, considered joining the Confederacy.<sup>[1868]</sup> Chief Ross, initially neutral, finally signed a treaty with the Confederacy on October 9, 1861.

Many Indians had divided loyalties. The Cherokees had even adopted the slave-holding culture. By 1860, the Cherokee elite, 10% of the tribe, owned about 4,000 slaves.<sup>[1869]</sup> Additionally, they had a long-standing animosity toward the federal government. Many preferred neutrality and rallied under the leadership of Creek Chief Opothleyahola. Some Confederate military, like General Douglas Cooper and Colonel James McIntosh “equated Indian neutrality with hostile opposition.”<sup>[1870]</sup>

Pike’s main objective was to add the Indian Territory to the Confederacy. He was not concerned for the welfare of the Indian occupants. He wanted them for a home guard and nothing more. He initially recommended the use of Indians in offensive guerrilla actions in order to secure their territory. Otherwise, he was not interested in using them outside of Indian Territory.<sup>[1871]</sup> On November 22, 1861, the Confederacy appointed Pike as the Commander of the Department of Indian Territory, a separate military department with headquarters near the junction of the Verdigris and Arkansas Rivers, not far from Fort Gibson. The Confederacy constructed barracks, a commissary and stables for what they generally called Fort Davis.<sup>[1872]</sup> On December 3, 1861, Lincoln announced to Congress, “The Indian country south of Kansas is now in possession of insurgents,” the southern residents of America.

## Opothleyahola and the Refugees

Colonel Douglas Cooper, commanding Confederate forces in Indian Territory wanted all the tribes, the Choctaw-Chickasaw and Creek-Seminole, to join him in a campaign against the Union on Little River. Chief Opothleyahola was adamantly neutral and opposed Cooper and his military plan. He counseled the other tribes to stay out of the white man’s war and remain neutral. According to Colonel Cooper, Opothleyahola and his people would either submit or be driven out of the territory at gunpoint. Opothleyahola, who knew of Cooper’s intentions to assault his people, broke camp and intended to lead his people towards Kansas.<sup>[1873]</sup>

In late November 1861, Cooper caught up with Opothleyahola’s refugees at Round Mountain northwest of Tulsa. He charged their camp but Opothleyahola’s men ambushed the attack and the tribe broke camp and headed north. John Drew’s Keetoowah regiment joined Cooper in his pursuit. On December 9, 1861, the night before another assault on Opothleyahola’s tribe, four hundred Keetoowahs, not wanting to be a part of this slaughter, deserted to Opothleyahola’s tribe. The next day, the battle was fierce. Both sides halted their battle. Cooper, short of supplies, returned to Fort Gibson, where he met Colonel James McIntosh who had 1,400 battle-hardened Indian-hating veterans looking for a fight. Opothleyahola and his tribe continued towards Kansas.<sup>[1874]</sup>

The Cherokee, Creek and Seminole full bloods preferred neutrality. Late in 1861, Opothleyahola encouraged those who favored neutrality to join him at his camp, Deep Fork. The Confederate Indian

forces attempted to subdue this group. The Neutrals were moving north towards Kansas and after a couple of battles, were low on ammunition. Opothleyahola appealed directly to Lincoln. On December 26, 1861, the Confederates led by Colonel McIntosh defeated them at the devastating Battle of Chustenahlah at Shoal Creek (near Skiatook, Oklahoma) and took most of their wagons, supplies, and livestock. Opothleyahola and the survivors fled on foot.<sup>[1875]</sup> The Confederates followed, shooting them in the back and slashing them with sabers. Finally, harsh winds and freezing temperatures forced the Confederates to retreat.<sup>[1876]</sup> The desperate Indians, who faced immediate death at the hands of the Confederates if they turned back, continued to flee, besieged by the elements, yet still attempting and hoping to survive.

Old people, children and newborn babies died. A few persistent Confederates, focused on death and destruction, killed warriors who were attempting to defend their families. The dispirited, starving refugees moved north, a trail of blood, human bodies and starved dead ponies in their wake. By January 1862, the survivors, only wishing to maintain neutral in a white man's battle, still struggled towards Kansas.<sup>[1877]</sup>

They had lost everything except the clothes on their back. They were desperate, starving and suffering terribly. The Union Army in Kansas was unprepared to handle these Indian refugees.<sup>[1878]</sup> It was the coldest winter the Indians had ever experienced. They trudged through snow-covered, desolate prairie for 300 miles.<sup>[1879]</sup> They fled up the valley of the Verdigris River and entered Kansas near Walnut Creek. Stragglers crossed the Cherokee Strip and the Osage Reservation heading northeast and ultimately camped on the edge of the New York Indian Lands adjacent to the Fall River, about sixty miles west of Humboldt.<sup>[1880]</sup> Many were now naked or in rags. Many of the women and children, the most vulnerable, had frozen blackened limbs. Opothleyahola, who fought so tirelessly for his people, collapsed and died a short time after the tribe's arrival in Kansas. The courageous chief's arduous task was finished.<sup>[1881]</sup>

Thus, some of the first battles of Lincoln's War occurred in Indian Territory, in November and December of 1861. Troops fought other campaigns, in 1862 and 1863, against the Indians. Union troops captured Fort Smith (in modern-day Arkansas) on September 1, 1863, which ended the war against the Indians residing in the Indian Territory.<sup>[1882]</sup> Indians defected from the Confederacy and joined the Kansas refugees. The Indians who had initially joined the Confederate Army recognized they had more in common with Opothleyahola than with the slaveholding planters. After the Battle of Pea Ridge, on March 7-8, 1862, the Confederacy disbanded the Cherokee regiment.<sup>[1883]</sup>

## The Indian Plight in Kansas

In December 1861 when thousands of Indian refugees were crossing from Indian Territory into Kansas, Lincoln's administration apparently had to consider retaking Indian Territory. White residents in Kansas strongly objected to additional Indians in the state. If Lincoln retook the Indian Territory, he could relocate the Indian refugees back to their homes. They could be soldiers in retaking their territory.<sup>[1884]</sup>

General David Hunter, Commander of the Western Department of the Union Army had responsibility for the desperate refugees. Even before they arrived in Kansas, buffalo hunters from the Sac and Fox Nations near Osage County, Kansas, sent word of their tragic plight. William G. Coffin, Federal Southern Superintendent, persuaded General Hunter to send assistance to the refugees. Coffin directed federal agents in his charge to gather at Fort Roe, Kansas to assist them.<sup>[1885]</sup> There were hardly any white people, just squatters, in the Verdigris Valley close to Fort Roe. The military made the area into a concentration camp but failed to take precautions to maintain hygienic conditions. The emaciated, sick, disheartened surviving refugees had little chance to maintain personal cleanliness in their wretched circumstances.<sup>[1886]</sup>

General Hunter sent Captain John W. Turner, Chief Commissary of Subsistence, and Dr. A. B. Campbell, Surgeon United States Army, to the Fall River refugee encampment to assist them. However, Hunter's

meager resources were wholly inadequate. A few substandard blankets and condemned army tents hardly sufficed. Campbell claimed that the army's help consisted of thirty-five blankets, forty pairs of socks, and a few underclothes. He said he "selected the nakedest of the naked" and gave them what he had. He then attempted to explain to hundreds of destitute souls that there was to be nothing left for them, some of whom had not "one thread upon their body."<sup>[1887]</sup>

When Dr. Campbell arrived at the end of January, he discovered the Indians in such a deplorable condition that he did not have words to describe it. Prairie grasses and whatever clothing that remained were their only protection against the snow and cold. They needed immediate medical attention for "inflammatory diseases of the chest, throat, and eyes." Without shoes or moccasins – their feet were injured and many had their toes "frozen off." At least 200 horses, dead from starvation, lay where they fell throughout the camp. The Indian's major source of food was from Fort Leavenworth, food the military had previously rejected because of spoilage. Government-supplied food, condemned as unfit for human consumption immediately sickened the starving Indians when they ate it. On February 15, 1862, the army arbitrarily withheld all supplies. The starving refugees were now dependent on the insufficient Southern Superintendency. The inefficiencies of the Indian agency and attitude of the federal government toward the indigenous population, supported by many constituents, were tragically evident during this situation.<sup>[1888]</sup>

Superintendent William G. Coffin estimated that there were from 10,000 to 16,000 refugees. Finally, in March, the Indian Office provided some aid and Congress, complaining about the costs of providing assistance for part of the Indians, 7,600 Indians, introduced a Removal Bill. The Indians wanted to return to their homes with the assistance of the Union Army.<sup>[1889]</sup>

On April 12, 1862, Superintendent Coffin gave a report from Leroy, Coffey County, Kansas as published in the *New York Times* on April 27. He noted that the Indians were beginning to recover but still suffered from measles, diphtheria, bone fever and rheumatism. He ridiculed the Indian's medicinal use of roots and herbs when he said, "You might as well argue with the leopard to get him to change his spots, as to attempt to get them to leave off so ridiculous an absurdity."<sup>[1890]</sup>

Officials with the Office of Indian Affairs sent George Collamore, an investigator in late April 1862 to investigate the condition of the Indian refugees in Kansas. The people were using whatever "pieces of cloth" or "old quilts," whatever they could find to stretch on sticks "to cover the emaciated and dying forms beneath them." He found Opothleyahola's daughter near death. Frostbite was severe – Collamore, as described by Author David Williams, tells of one little Creek boy, about eight years old who had lost both feet near the ankle. Doctors had to perform at least 100 amputations. Food was as scarce as shelter. A weekly ration for one refugee consisted of a pound of flour, a little salt and a rancid piece of bacon, previously condemned at Fort Leavenworth as unsuitable. The destitute refugees became violently ill when they attempted to eat it.<sup>[1891]</sup>

The situation in Kansas had not changed by September 1862. Lincoln, embittered by the Cherokee's aid to the Confederacy, agreed to meet with Chief Ross on September 12, 1862. Chief Ross attempted to explain the predicament – they had no choice as the Union had withdrawn all protection and had violated treaty obligations. Ross reminded Lincoln that his people rejoined the North when it became feasible. On September 25, 1862, Lincoln wrote a non-committal letter to Ross, essentially promising nothing despite Caleb Smith's recommendations. Smith felt that Ross' complaints were justified.<sup>[1892]</sup>

Indian Commissioner William P. Dole managed to get Dr. William Kile, a former business partner, the position of special purchasing agent to secure supplies for the refugees. Upon visiting the encampment from the New York Indian Lands to the Verdigris River, he corroborated the reports of the Indian's relentless suffering. Despite circumstances, nepotism was always evident – Dole, Coffin and the others associated with the Bureau of Indian Affairs made certain to employ as many of their friends and relatives

as possible. That seemed more of a prerequisite than actually helping those who were in desperate need. Nothing has changed in U.S. politics – city, county, state or federal.<sup>[1893]</sup>

Distributing agents congregated at Leroy, in the Neosho Valley, convenient and close to transportation and supplies. Relief funds were extremely limited. Congress had made no new appropriations. Unfortunately, white settlers had also been moving to that area for the abundance of trees and did not want to be in close proximity to the Indians. Inevitably, the Indians, instead of the whites, were obliged to move before violence erupted. The Sacs and Foxes offered their reservation about twenty-five miles northward. The disgusted, destitute homesick refugees who had justifiable grievances simply wanted to return home. Superintendent Williams G. Coffin and George W. Cutler, agent for the Creek Indians appealed unsuccessfully to Lincoln.<sup>[1894]</sup>

The refugees were still suffering for want of adequate food, clothing and shelter as the winter of 1862-63 approached, despite the condemned tents the army had distributed. Many suffered and died from pneumonia for lack of shelter or severe gastric disorders due to spoiled poor-quality food supplied by the government.<sup>[1895]</sup>

## **The Sioux Uprising of 1862**

There are substantial reasons for the Sioux Uprising of 1862, also known as the Dakota Conflict, the Dakota War of 1862, or Little Crow's War. The treaties of 1851 and 1858 undermined Dakota culture and drastically reduced the tribal power structure by emasculating the chiefs and older men, which inevitably generated gangs of resentful malcontents. The treaties prohibited the tribes from hunting where they had always hunted. In as much as the Indians could not hunt, they became dependent upon government-provided food, which they bought with their annuity payments, poor compensation for relinquishing their land and their pride. The Sioux were justifiably embittered. Government-licensed traders regularly escalated commodity prices by as much as 100% to 400%. Agency oversight was nonexistent and the Indians had no legal recourse or effective representation. The disaffected malcontents had little hope and saw few options.

The government, for some reason, perhaps the war, was late in paying the annuities, in gold. People circulated rumors that the U.S. government had spent all of their gold to fight the Confederacy. Thaóyate Dúta known as Little Crow, a Sioux Chief, asked Indian Agent, Thomas Galbraith if he could possibly issue food from the warehouse, instead of giving the Indians their usual gold payment, because his people were starving and the warehouses were full. Instead of meeting the needs of the hungry Indians, Galbraith ordered 100 U.S. soldiers to guard the Upper Agency warehouses.<sup>[1896]</sup>

On July 14, 1862, about 5,000 starving Sioux surrounded Galbraith, and demanded that the Indian Agent open the agency warehouses and release the provisions intended for them. Their crops had failed and the Indians were in a state of chronic starvation. Galbraith notified Superintendent Thompson about the situation. On August 4, 1862, more than 500 Sioux forced the outnumbered soldiers to give them some basic provisions. On August 13, Little Crow demanded that Galbraith allocate more commodities to the adjacent Lower Agency. On August 15, Dakota representatives, Galbraith and representatives of the traders held a meeting to discuss the situation. The traders did not want to distribute agency provisions until the annuity payments arrived. At the meeting, Andrew Myrick, a trader with an Indian wife said, "As far as I am concerned, if they are hungry, let them eat grass or their own dung."<sup>[1897]</sup> Unbeknownst to everyone, the annuities were en route. On August 16, a container with \$71,000 in gold coins had arrived in St. Paul. The next day, shipping officials would send the money to Fort Ridgely for distribution.<sup>[1898]</sup>

On Sunday, August 17, 1862, four young Dakota Sioux men were hunting and found some chicken eggs along the fence line of a settler's homestead in Acton, Minnesota. One of the four men took the eggs but

the others chided him, telling him that the eggs belonged to a white man. The first man became angry, threw the eggs on the ground and accused the others of being afraid of the whites. To disprove the accusation, he threatened to go to the house and shoot the owner and challenged the others to join him. Consequently, they killed five settlers, an act certain to result in harsh retaliation from the whites.<sup>[1899]</sup>

When others informed Little Crow about the murders that night, he reminded his followers, “It is the white man’s way to punish all Indians for the crimes of one or a few.” It is still, to this day, the elite’s way to punish whole countries for the behavior of a few. After deliberating throughout the night, Chief Little Crow and Chief Big Eagle, the majority of the Indian council who wanted a preemptive strike outnumbered the others. They argued, a defensive assault is preferable “rather than wait for the soldiers to come and kill them” in as much as the white men were busy fighting among themselves in the South. Little Crow, who did not want war, castigated the young perpetrators of the massacre for drinking the “white man’s devil water.”<sup>[1900]</sup>

Chief Little Crow reluctantly agreed to wage a war in an attempt to force the settlers to leave Sioux territory. Yet, he warned, “Blood has been shed, the payments will be stopped and the whites will exact a terrible revenge because women have been killed, but I will lead you.”<sup>[1901]</sup> Little Crow alerted neighboring tribes of his imminent surprise attack against the Lower Agency and the traders. On August 18, 1862, at 6:30 a.m., at the sight of the attacking Indians, Andrew Myrick, the trader escaped into his store and up to the second floor where he jumped from a window when the Sioux set his store afire. The U.S. military later discovered Myrick, shot dead and scalped, with grass in his mouth.<sup>[1902]</sup>

Panic, provoked by false claims, broke out among the whites. On August 19, 1862, people reported that the bloodthirsty savages had killed 500 whites rather than the five unfortunate victims. On August 21, Governor Alexander Ramsey (1860-1863) telegraphed War Secretary Edwin M. Stanton and claimed that the Indians were murdering men, women and children. Ramsey, then a Whig, was the first Territorial Governor of Minnesota (1849-1853). Ramsey appointed Henry Hastings Sibley, former Minnesota governor (1858-1860) and Indian trader, as his top military commander. Sibley gathered a volunteer militia. It was an election year, Ramsey desperately wanted to be a Senator, and a tough policy against the non-voting Indians might strengthen his position with the frightened white residents, perhaps enough to propel him to Washington.<sup>[1903]</sup> On January 15, 1863, his tough Indian policy, supposedly designed to keep residents safe, would clinch his victory over Aldrich for the Senate seat.

President Abraham Lincoln obviously knew about the corruption in Minnesota but was not yet aware of the recent events with the Indians because he focused so much of his attention on the war against the South. Caleb B. Smith, Secretary of the Interior, claimed that the Confederacy had supplied the weapons to the Indians and that the attack was a Confederate Conspiracy. He further claimed that the main cause was the “insurrection of the southern states.”<sup>[1904]</sup> Commissioner of Indian Affairs, William P. Dole exaggerated and announced that the Indian’s attack was “the most atrocious and horrible outbreak to be found in the annals of Indian history” and that the attack was “characterized by every species of savage atrocity and barbarity known to Indian warfare.” Dole estimated that the Indians had savagely murdered between 800 and 1,000 unarmed settlers and that the Indians had almost demolished the whole town of New Ulm, with about 1,500 to 2,000 residents.<sup>[1905]</sup>

On August 25, 1862, Governor Ramsey notified officials in Washington that he needed men and supplies. To influence the decision, he requested a delay in Minnesota’s draft requirement of 5,360 men. In other words, provide me with the men and equipment that I have requested or I will withhold Minnesota residents from fighting in the war. After War Secretary Stanton rejected his request, Ramsey approached Lincoln who unthinkingly responded, “Attend to the Indians,” giving him full authority, in addition to what he asked for, to take any action he wanted. Minnesota was a Republican stronghold and Lincoln was

anticipating a reelection in 1864. It also gave him an opportunity to reassign the disgruntled General John Pope, a West Point graduate, who had just returned to Washington. Pope was angry, bitter and unfairly blaming Fitz John Porter for his own bumbling loss at the Second Battle of Bull Run (August 28-30, 1862). Pope, a known braggart and early-day media whore, arrived in St. Paul, Minnesota on September 16, 1862 to head up the newly contrived Military Department of the Northwest.<sup>[1906]</sup>

General Pope instantly adopted an uncompromising attitude toward the Indians. He wrote to Colonel Sibley, "It is my purpose utterly to exterminate the Sioux if I have the power to do so, and even if it requires a campaign lasting the whole of next year. Destroy everything belonging to them and force them out to the plains, unless, as I suggest, you can capture them. They are to be treated as maniacs or wild beasts, and by no means as people with whom treaties or compromises can be made."<sup>[1907]</sup> <sup>[1908]</sup> He told Sibley to destroy Indian farms and their scant food. Sibley was happy to comply because he regarded the Indians as "devils in human shape" and "miserable wretches" and he was looking for a political promotion. Meanwhile, General Pope notified officials in Washington that there were 50,000 refugees and that the Indians would surely depopulate the whole of Dakota and Nebraska.<sup>[1909]</sup>

By September 20, 1862, the Confederacy had released 20,000 Union prisoners to the federal government on the condition that Washington officials promise they would not immediately dispatch them to Minnesota to engage in warfare against the Indians. Lincoln, a man historians regularly characterize as having unshakeable integrity, told Stanton to ignore that stipulation in their agreement with the South and send them to Minnesota. However, the reluctant soldiers found the assignment "very distasteful" and an obvious violation of the terms of their release. Some deserted; others simply refused to go to Minnesota. They resisted to the point that the military was forced to use local troops who were probably more motivated to kill and expel the Indians. Author David A. Nichols wrote, "Indian warfare stirred patriotism only in Minnesota," among the residents wanting more land.<sup>[1910]</sup>

The vulnerable Indians, weakened by hunger and with few weapons, were no military match for Sibley's forces. He had a decisive victory at Wood Lake on September 23, 1862, which ended the Sioux's organized fighting in Minnesota. Some of the stronger, unyielding Indians, to avoid capture, escaped to the west. The chiefs quickly conceded and released all white captives. Most of the Sioux, on the verge of starvation, willingly surrendered. Sibley promised them that he and the rest of the military would treat them as friends if they surrendered. However, what the whites apparently wanted was vengeance!<sup>[1911]</sup>

The media panic had been totally out of proportion. Although Sibley promised to treat those who surrendered as friends, he had other plans. By early October, he and his subordinates incarcerated these friends, about 1,200, out of which almost 1,000 were women and children, as prisoners of war. Sibley quickly convened a Military Commission to try almost 400 war criminals that faced probable execution. By October 3, 1862, they had already tried twenty to thirty Indians. General Pope saw no necessity for the trials saying, "We have and can have troops enough to exterminate them all, if they furnish the least occasion for it." That included women and children. He ordered his men to shoot any Indian who left the reservation – no questions asked. On October 9, 1862, He told the government "The Sioux War may be considered at an end."<sup>[1912]</sup>

George A. S. Crooker, a Minnesota resident, wrote to Lincoln on Tuesday, October 7, 1862, "the Sioux Indians ... never had more than ten such rifles...which were bought in St Paul." The uprising "was caused by the wretched condition of the tribes, some of them were almost at the point of starvation, the neglect of the Government agents to make the annuity payments at the proper time and the insulting taunts of the Agents to their cries for bread." It was caused by "the rapacious robberies of the Agents, Traders, and Government officials who always connive together to steal every dollar of their money that can be stolen."<sup>[1913]</sup>

George A. S. Crooker further wrote, “If an Agent can hold his office through one yearly payment of annuities he can retire rich for life when his salary is never more than \$1500 a year and often less. A kind and considerate Agent who had the interests of his Government and the well-being of the Indians at heart would have avoided and prevented the whole of the bloodshed that followed. I feel confident if all the Indian outbreaks upon this continent were carefully examined and honestly probed to the bottom, the whole cause and origin would be found in the thievish and dishonest conduct of Government Agents, Officers, Traders, and the vile confederates that procured their appointment and share their plunder and then gloss over and hide their iniquity. Instead of annuity payments build them mills, aid them in erecting dwellings, furnish implements of husbandry, instruct them how to keep these in repair and how to till the soil...whole system of annuity payments has never been beneficial but rather an unmitigated curse to the Indian.”<sup>[1914]</sup>

The five-man Military Commission, in ten days, tried 392 prisoners, condemning 303 to death. The Commission did not allow the majority of them to speak in their own behalf. Trials for Indians and blacks are predictably concise and conclusive. Pope and Sibley demanded immediate executions. Nevertheless, on November 8, 1862, Sibley telegraphed the results of the trials to Lincoln for his confirmation as he had requested that they send all the trial records to him for evaluation.<sup>[1915]</sup> Sibley was determined that the number of executions should “be sufficiently great to satisfy the longings of the most bloodthirsty.”<sup>[1916]</sup> General Pope pressured Lincoln to move forward with the executions. Ramsey hinted that if they postponed or stalled official actions then the citizens would take things into their own hands. Minnesota newspapers threatened disastrous consequences if the president failed to execute the prisoners. Minnesota Politicians Morton Wilkinson, Cyrus Aldrich and William Windom insisted on executions even if it meant embellishing the evidence. Wilkinson told sensational stories about Indians brutally murdering and raping white women in order to pass a resolution requiring action from the president.<sup>[1917]</sup>

On November 22, 1862, Thaddeus Williams, a St. Paul doctor, wrote to Lincoln and claimed that the Indians had killed “400 human beings, butchered, their entrails torn out, & their heads cut off & put between their lifeless thighs, or hoisted on a pole, their bodies gashed and cut to strips, & nailed or hung to trees; mothers with sharp fence rails passed through them and their unborn babies; children with hooks stuck through their backs and hung to limbs of trees...not only does justice require the blood of these savages but vengeance will have it.” He further claimed that twenty-three Indians had raped one young girl. Minnesota newspapers carried similar stories – all contrived to inflame and outrage the white population who would justify a bloodbath against the Indians.<sup>[1918]</sup> The court records showed that two Indians were guilty of single-incident rape.

Lincoln and a cadre of lawyers evaluated the transcripts. Some trials lasted only ten to fifteen minutes. Most of the condemned had not participated in any terrorist activities. Lincoln ultimately decided, after Judge Advocate General Joseph Holt opted out of the decision, to have thirty-eight out of the 303 convicts hanged, given the “extreme ferocities” and “large amount of human life involved” during the Sioux uprising. This satisfied the demand of the Minnesota citizens for vengeance and constituted “the largest official mass execution in American history in which guilt of the executed cannot be positively determined.”<sup>[1919]</sup> Ramsey and Senator Morton Wilkinson, for political expediency, thought Lincoln should have ordered the execution of all 303 Sioux.<sup>[1920]</sup>

Henry B. Whipple, Episcopal Bishop of Minnesota, opposed the mass execution and appealed to Lincoln through Senator Henry Rice: “We cannot hang men by the hundreds.”<sup>[1921]</sup> Citizens criticized Whipple for his Christian views when he protested the results of the hasty trials and the slaughter of people who peaceably surrendered, perhaps just to get a meal.<sup>[1922]</sup> Whipple attempted to reform the corrupt system while President James Buchanan was in office. In a letter to Buchanan, he insisted that “civilization and

Christianization” were essential for the Indians. He criticized the policies within the Indian service, “with the illegal sale of liquor and corruption prevalent among the traders.” He anticipated a Sioux uprising unless they implemented some reforms. He wrote, “Again and again I had declared publicly, that as certain as any fact in human history, a nation which sowed robbery would reap a harvest of blood.”<sup>[1923]</sup>

On December 1, 1862, Lincoln, in his State of the Union Address said, “The Indian tribes upon our frontiers have during the past year manifested a spirit of insubordination, and at several points have engaged in open hostilities against the white settlements in their vicinity...In the month of August last the Sioux Indians in Minnesota attacked the settlements in their vicinity...*How this outbreak was induced is not definitely known*...The people of that State manifest much anxiety for the removal of the tribes beyond the limits of the State...I submit for your especial consideration whether our Indian system shall not be remodeled.”<sup>[1924]</sup>

Politicians convened a commission, according to the Congressional legislation they had passed on February 16, 1863. Lincoln appointed Cyrus Aldrich to the commission to evaluate civilian indemnity claims resulting from the war. John Usher, the new Secretary of the Interior, who replaced Caleb B. Smith, admitted that it was difficult to ascertain the validity of all of the claims. Because of the commission’s decisions, money flowed from Washington to the Minnesota residents who filed damage claims. Of the \$1,370,374, the traders received \$208,000 and the rest went to claimants who may or may not have had justifiable requests.<sup>[1925]</sup> All the claimants appreciated the politicians who favored them with cash and who had eliminated the Indians, which freed up additional fertile land.

In addition to the prisoners, Sibley had custody of hundreds of others, mostly women and children. The government had little concern for families. Minnesota politicians wanted to remove all Indians, even the non-combatants, not just the Sioux, and take control of the Indian funds. Ramsey claimed that the Indians had forfeited every right to government protection, which meant that the government could steal their land. They moved most of the starving Sioux, without horses or guns to hunt, to the Upper Missouri after it was too late to plant crops.<sup>[1926]</sup>

On February 21, 1863, Congress passed a removal bill to rid Minnesota of the Winnebagos, another local tribe, although they had no part in the war. They protested, but in vain, as the pitiless military, according to their orders, brutally forced them out. They would leave their fertile land in late June 1863. The military crowded the tribe members into trains and onto steamboats for the long journey down the Mississippi and up the Missouri to their new reservation at Crow Creek, a desolate land in Dakota where the government expected them to supplement what food they received from the federal agency by hunting buffalo. However, without horses, buffalo hunting was impossible. Of the group, only 116 of them were males over the age of fifteen. Several women and children died during the insufferable journey. Minnesota settlers quickly divvied up the spoils; Morton Wilkinson arranged for the Lincoln-approved distribution of 54,000 acres of Winnebago land with financing from Thompson Brothers of St. Paul. Clark W. Thompson, a banker, and a Lincoln campaigner and elector previously directed the Northern Superintendency for Indian Affairs while managing his regular business concerns.<sup>[1927]</sup>

In April 1863, the military moved about 300 prisoners of war from Minnesota to Camp McClellan in Davenport, Iowa where at least sixty-one of them perished due to disease and starvation. The remaining prisoners, mostly women and children, remained in custody at Fort Snelling during the winter of 1863 where many of them also perished because of illness and malnutrition. Eventually, on April 10, 1866, they relocated the surviving prisoners to Santee, Nebraska where many reunited with their families. Ramsey pressured Lincoln in the hopes that Congress would sanction the wholesale removal of the remaining Indians from Minnesota.<sup>[1928]</sup>

The destructive War of 1862 escalated into the ongoing plains wars. Lincoln authorized General Alfred

Sully from Iowa and General Henry Sibley to coordinate a “search and destroy” military operation to pursue the retreating insurgents into the Dakota Territory where, according to Sibley, they had driven 8,000 to 10,000 Indians. They followed the 1863 expedition with military excursions against all Indian tribes in 1864, 1865 and 1866. The goal of these bloody military operations was total extermination.<sup>[1929]</sup>

Sibley and Sully’s 1863 expedition drove the main body of Sioux to the west of the Missouri, and destroyed huge quantities of their food and equipment. In June of 1863, Sibley directed his army west from Minnesota toward the Devils Lake region, but the Indians had fled southward. He pursued them and on July 24, they fought at Big Mound about seven miles north of the present town of Tappen. In July, they fought three battles – Big Mound (July 24, 1863), Dead Buffalo Lake (July 26, 1863) and Stony Lake (July 28, 1863), all in east-central North Dakota.<sup>[1930]</sup> The U.S. military had all of the advantages – modern rifles and artillery while the retreating Indians had shotguns and bows and arrows – used in an attempt to protect their wives and children.<sup>[1931]</sup>

The Indians had spent the winter on the plains with inadequate provisions, no horses and no ammunition to hunt and were literally starving. Consequently, they engaged in petty horse-stealing raids into Minnesota. On July 3, 1863, during one of those raids, Little Crow and Wowinapa, his son, were about twelve miles from Hutchinson foraging for berries when Nathan Lampson and his son Chauncey fired upon them. The shots mortally wounded Little Crow but Wowinapa escaped. Chauncey Lampson went to Hutchinson and returned with a group of townspeople. Nathan Lampson scalped Little Crow (\$75 bounty) while the townspeople mutilated him. Then they took his remains to Hutchinson where they further mutilated his body. After the “civilized” townspeople had finished their gruesome task, they threw this “savage’s” torn, bloodied body on a heap of animal entrails at a local slaughterhouse.<sup>[1932]</sup>

## **The Bear River Massacre**

Whites began invading Shoshoni territory between 1810 and 1812 when John Jacob Astor sent his representatives in the Columbia-Snake River area to purchase furs. Astor’s agents were some of the first Euro-Americans to travel through the South Pass in 1812. Initially the Shoshoni appreciated the opportunity to trade with the whites. By 1818, agents, “mountain men,” with the North West Company from Montreal came into the Snake River plain. The Rocky Mountain Fur Company sent men into the area in 1824. By the 1840s, the fur trade declined and emigrants began traversing the South Pass and onto Shoshoni lands. John C. Frémont explored the area in 1843. The Mormons came into the area in 1847.<sup>[1933]</sup>

The South Pass through the mountains, on the Continental Divide in the Rocky Mountains, the lowest point in the range, is located in southwestern Wyoming. It is a wide valley between the Wind River Range to the north and the Antelope Hills to the south. South Pass, a natural crossing point, is between the Central Rocky Mountains and the Southern Rocky Mountains. In the nineteenth century, it was the route for the Oregon Trail, the California Trail, and the Mormon Trail. Historically, natural grasses and sagebrush filled the prairie where the Sweetwater River was located on the east side and the Pacific Creek was on the west side.

The seven major Shoshoni groups west of South Pass had tried, through the 1850s, to fend off the invading settlers and prospectors in the Great Basin and Snake River country, their prime hunting ground for countless generations. Government officials were not going to prevent white migration into Indian lands. The Shoshoni land was a “diverse environment, ranging from extreme desert conditions to well-watered oases along mountain fringes and main rivers.”<sup>[1934]</sup>

The media of the day sensationalized the Indian attacks with provocative headlines – “Indian Murders” or “Murders of Emigrants” – so frightened settlers demanded immediate resolutions.<sup>[1935]</sup> Patrick Edward O’Connor, who had an explosive temper, came with his parents to New York City from Kerry County,

Ireland and enlisted as a private in the army in the First Dragoons, the army's Indian fighting force, on November 28, 1839.<sup>[1936]</sup> He fought against the Indians in the Second Seminole War, which began in 1835 and lasted until 1842. William Jenkins Worth, under Major General Winfield Scott, led the most "successful" campaigns against the Seminoles in Florida who the U.S government later removed west of the Mississippi.

The army discharged him and he returned to New York for a while, and then in 1846, he went to Texas where he joined Albert Sydney Johnston's command on May 6, 1846.<sup>[1937]</sup> He joined the Texas volunteers on July 7, 1846 for America's war with Mexico and, at that time, changed his name from O'Connor to Connor. During the war, his superiors commissioned him a captain. On May 24, 1847, he resigned his commission. Then, Indians working for John Sutter discovered gold in California. Connor, a feisty opportunist, left Texas and arrived in California on January 22, 1850.<sup>[1938]</sup> He moved to Stockton, California. In May 1853, he joined the California Rangers and in December 1856, he was a first lieutenant and later a captain of a volunteer militia, the Stockton Blues.

At the beginning of Lincoln's War, on April 12, 1861, Connor assembled a 146-man company, which he called the Union Guard. On August 23, 1861, Governor John Downey called for volunteers. Connor became the colonel for the Third Infantry California Volunteers on September 4, 1861. On July 5, 1862, Connor's superiors assigned him to the Utah Territory to protect the Overland Mail Route and telegraph lines and to prevent a possible Mormon uprising. He and his regiment, the U.S. Army's Third California Volunteer Infantry Regiment went to the Military District of Utah – the territories of Nevada and Utah.<sup>[1939]</sup>

On October 26, 1862, Colonel Connor established Camp Douglas, 2,560 acres, located about three miles east of Salt Lake City, as a military garrison, to protect the overland mail route and telegraph lines along the Central Overland Route. In 1878, officials would rename the facility Fort Douglas, named for Stephen L. Douglas, and it later grew to 10,525 acres. Connor founded Stockton, Utah, named for Stockton, California and the Pioneer Smelting Works in 1866. He had previously set up four mining companies.<sup>[1940]</sup> He explored the local vicinity and ultimately discovered vast mineral wealth in the territory and reported his findings through his extensive correspondence with Washington.

On January 29, 1863, Connor's troops discovered and immediately assaulted, without any military justification, the Shoshoni encampment of about 500 people adjacent to the Bear River, near the present-day city of Preston in Franklin County, Idaho. His troops surrounded the camps and began shooting at the unsuspecting Indians. The warriors attempted to fight back while the women and children took cover in the Beaver Creek ravine. Connor's men quickly trapped the unprepared warriors in the ravine that had only one possible escape route, the perfect situation for a mass slaughter. The soldiers destroyed the lodges and the food supply, much of which the Mormons had supplied. Colonel Connor, who was bitterly xenophobic, directed some of his troops to block the only plausible exit from the ravine while others went to the top of the ridge in order to fire upon the trapped Indians. Some drowned in the river while Connor's men shot and killed others when they attempted to escape by swimming across the icy Bear River.<sup>[1941]</sup>

A reporter accompanied the attack and described the dead and the dying Indians who lay among the horses that the U.S. military had also savagely killed. Wounded suffering Indians and horses were intermingled with the dead. There was blood and carnage everywhere. He naively or deceptively reported that the soldiers had "accidentally" killed many women and children. The soldiers slaughtered women, children and babies, not inadvertently but with brute deliberation. They waged a total war against anyone who happened to be an Indian. They massacred at least 255 Shoshoni men, women and children within a relatively short period. Figures vary – a Danish emigrant counted 493 dead Shoshoni. The troops brutally tortured Chief Bear Hunter who was wounded, but still barely alive after the massacre. They whipped and kicked him but he would not utter a word or ask for mercy. One of Connor's men put the bayonet end

of his rifle into the burning fire to heat the long sharp blade until it was “glowing hot,” then the soldier “ran the burning hot metal through the chief’s ears.”<sup>[1942]</sup>

The soldiers used an axe on those who survived the initial assault with guns. They sadistically raped many of the women who they had shot or axed, while these women were in the agony of dying.<sup>[1943]</sup> The soldiers brutally killed those who attempted to resist the sexual assault, despite their wounds. The soldiers gunned down the children. Soldiers swung infants by their feet, bashing their heads against the rocks.<sup>[1944]</sup> About 160 Shoshoni women and children surrendered. Connor left them, without food, amid the dead bodies of their relatives and friends and the bloody ruins of their encampment to die of exposure or starvation. He continued his campaign against the Shoshoni and by spring their “resistance was entirely broken.” They signed the Treaty of Box Elder, which stipulated their immediate removal to a small reservation in Idaho Territory, along the Snake River near what is now Pocatello. Connor reported to his superiors that his “district was now cleared of savages.”<sup>[1945]</sup>

His report was incorrect as he and his men, the real savages, remained in the area. When he returned to Fort Douglas, people welcomed Connor and his men as heroes. The Indians managed to kill fourteen soldiers while attempting to defend their families and themselves. The U.S. military massacred a whole group of peaceful men, women and children at Bear River in the Cache Valley.<sup>[1946]</sup> The soldiers seized about 175 surviving horses, buffalo robes and other personal items belonging to the Indians.<sup>[1947]</sup> Workers surveyed the Bear River through the Cache Divide for diversion and irrigation in 1868. Following completion of the First Transcontinental Railroad in 1869, the government granted the Central Pacific more than a third of the land in the Bear River Valley via land grants.

Colonel Patrick E. Connor introduced mining to Utah and allowed his rich friends to develop the industry in Utah. He established the West Mountain Mining District.<sup>[1948]</sup> The Oquirrh Mountains, west of the Salt Lake Valley, in Utah Territory had rich mineral deposits. On December 17, 1863, Connor and his men organized Utah’s first mining district, the West Mountain Mining District that initially took in the Oquirrh Mountains. Following the discovery of silver by prospectors, they separated the district, on the western slopes, and organized the Rush Valley District on June 12, 1864. Colonel Patrick E. Conner and his men were all from California and they had collective experience with prospecting and mining. Given their duties were light, Connor urged his men to go prospecting in the mountains.<sup>[1949]</sup>

In June 1865, Representative George W. Julian of Indiana introduced a bill suggesting that the government seize all of the western mines from the prospectors who had discovered them and sell them at a public auction. Representative Fernando Wood wanted the government to send a military force to California, Colorado, and Arizona to oust the miners “by armed force if necessary to protect the rights of the Government in the mineral lands.” He promoted the idea that the federal government should work and manage the mines in order to stock the treasury.<sup>[1950]</sup>

In August 1870, they divided the original Rush Valley District into three districts and designated the northern part as the Tooele City Mining District and the southern section as the Ophir District. The mines located in these districts produced gold, silver, copper, lead, and zinc. On May 10, 1872, Congress enacted the General Mining Act of 1872, which allowed the government to claim the mineral wealth on public lands through the organization of mining districts in order to supervise all mining activity.<sup>[1951]</sup> In order to construct a railroad, settle the west, and mine the vast quantity of minerals in the area, the U.S. government had to eliminate the indigenous population.

## **Concentration or Extermination**

In 1846, with the U.S. engaged in war against Mexico, the Apache Nation allowed the U.S. military safe passage through their lands. Thereafter, the U.S. occupied New Mexico. Mangas Coloradas, the top

Apache tribal chief and a member of the Eastern Chiricahua Nation, signed a peace treaty with the U.S. as the Mexicans and the Apache Nation had been longtime enemies. Relative peace existed between the Apache Nation and the U.S. until prospectors seeking gold overran New Mexico's Pinos Altos Mountains, near the old Spanish copper mines.

The Territory of New Mexico was an organized incorporated territory of the United States as of September 9, 1850. Before the start of what people refer to as the Civil War, the current states of New Mexico and Arizona were part of the New Mexico Territory, according to the Gadsden Purchase. James Gadsden, U.S. Ambassador to Mexico would negotiate the purchase, formalized on December 30, 1853. The U.S. Senate would ratify it, with changes, on April 25, 1854 and President Franklin Pierce approved it. Mexican officials signed it June 8, 1854.

On July 11, 1852, at Ácoma, New Mexico, Mangas Coloradas (ca. 1790-1863), the top Apache tribal chief and a member of the Eastern Chiricahua Nation, and one of the few Indian leaders who still trusted the Americans, met with John Greiner and Edwin Vose Sumner, New Mexico's military commander. Mangas, then in his early sixties, signed the treaty, which contained eleven articles mandating that the natives (1) recognize the jurisdiction of the United States, (2) establish friendly relations between the two races, (3) allow the U.S. government to establish military posts and agencies in their country; (4) Mangas had to discontinue his raids into Mexico.”<sup>[1952]</sup>

In exchange, the U.S. government vowed that it would issue “presents” and other items, absent a specific timetable, only on the condition that Mangas agreed to the stipulations in the treaty. Mangas was prepared to make peace with the Americans but not with Mexico. That was why he agreed to meet with the Americans. However, the Americans reiterated several points. They had no intention and the treaty did not imply that the U.S. government would take any territory away from the tribes; he represented all five Chiricahua tribes. Mangas would never have signed such a document. Mangas declared to his people, “We will show them (Americans) the importance of our word. If we say we will keep peace, we will do so. We keep our agreements.” He did.<sup>[1953]</sup>

Until prospectors discovered gold, silver and copper on Chiricahua Apache land in 1860, the white settlers, miners and others traveled through southwestern New Mexico and southeastern Arizona, on their way to California, without any problems. The Chiricahua chiefs accepted the whites as trading partners and allowed them to establish posts and run mail through the territory. In the fall of 1860, some “rowdy miners” tied the elderly Mangas Coloradas to a tree and viciously whipped him. Therefore, the chiefs closed down routes through their territory and attempted to clear their land of all whites. All negotiations failed.<sup>[1954]</sup>

Researchers, Erica and Jim Parson, provide three letters from the *Mesilla Times* in 1860 and 1861, written by Jacob Snively, former Army Paymaster Jacob Snively<sup>[1955]</sup> witnessed by Henry Burch and James W. Hicks, and dated September 17, 1860, at Pinos Altos Mines. The editor published one of the letters on October 25, 1860. On April 20, 1860, Jacob Snively, accompanied by Henry Burch and James W. Hicks began prospecting for gold, starting at the Gila River. Snively's letter states that on May 3, 1860, he discovered gold in what he named Bear Creek. This discovery, in Bear Creek and its tributaries, constituted a major gold discovery. In addition to gold, they also found quartz and silver, in sufficient amounts to create an industry in the area, according to Snively, for “at least for twenty years or more.”<sup>[1956]</sup>

Snively, Hicks and Burch clearly indicate that they broadcast the news in an effort to attract a large group of miners to the area, as they wanted to give the appearance of a large force of men to protect against a potential attack by the Apaches. They mined quartz on a daily basis from its first discovery on May 3, despite Captain Thomas Mastin's claim that he first discovered quartz in December 1860. According to Mastin's obituary, published October 17, 1861 in the *Mesilla Times*, he died at Pinos Alto on October 7,

1861, at about 4 p.m. “after a lingering illness occasioned by a wound received in the arm” during the raid of September 27, 1861.<sup>[1957]</sup> This was a battle between settlers of Pinos Altos mining town, the Confederate Arizona Guards, and Apache warriors.

Benjamin Franklin Neal, a newspaper publisher and resident of Texas (1838-1859), had sympathized with the Federalist revolutionaries in Mexico. Neal had a law practice in Corpus Christi where the citizens elected him as the first mayor after officials incorporated the town in 1852. In 1859, Neal went to Arizona.<sup>[1958]</sup> On October 8, 1860, according to the *Mesilla Times*, Judge B. F. Neal, a 45-year old lawyer, born in Virginia,<sup>[1959]</sup> chaired the Committee on the Formation of a Constitution for Arizona. The citizens had also elected Benjamin Franklin Neal as the Attorney General for the Provisional Government of Arizona. At that time, there were about 500 Americans living in the unincorporated town of Pinos Alto, which had a mayor and a marshal but was a “provisional” government under the jurisdiction of the Provisional Government of Arizona Territory, established in April 1860 through the actions of a constitutional convention convened in Tucson. Dr. Lewis Sumpter Owings, formerly of Texas, was the governor of the Provisional Territory of Arizona.<sup>[1960]</sup>

In 1855, Dr. Owings had been a member of the Texas House of Representatives. In 1857, he ran on a platform that advocated an amendment to the State Constitution that would allow for the establishment of banks. The press vilified him and he lost the election. Shortly thereafter, he moved to Mesilla, New Mexico where he invested in a gold mine and made a fortune.<sup>[1961]</sup> John Baylor succeeded him as the governor of the Provisional Territory of Arizona in 1862. Judge Neal made a significant fortune in a gold-mining venture in the Gila River valley. He returned to Corpus Christi before the war and became an advocate of states’ rights.<sup>[1962]</sup>

About 2,000 miners arrived in the southern foothills of the Mogollon Mountains in the spring and summer of 1860. The Gila Apaches inhabited this area, including the chieftain Mangas Coloradas. The U.S. constructed Fort McLane, twenty miles south of Pinos Altos, to stabilize the area during the winter of 1860-61, but with the beginning of the war on April 12, 1861, the majority of the military left and hostilities erupted between the miners and Apaches who had joined with the neighboring Chiricahuas.<sup>[1963]</sup>

The Confederate States claimed the Territory of Arizona on August 1, 1861, after their victory at the first Battle of Mesilla on July 25, 1861. However, they lost control of the area after the Battle of Glorieta Pass, March 26–28, 1862. On 24 February 1863, the U.S. Congress would divide the territory and create the new Arizona Territory along current boundaries between the states. The 1850 New Mexico Territory included most of what is now Arizona (known as Santa Ana County), a small portion of Colorado, and the southern part of Nevada. On February 24, 1863, the government would establish the Colorado Territory and on February 24, 1863, they would create the Arizona Territory, which left New Mexico with its present boundaries.

John Ward, a rancher, and his common law wife lived in the Sonoita Valley, about twelve miles from Fort Buchanan. The Apaches had captured his wife and held her for several years, during which time she had a son. One night, during a drunken rage, Ward beat his stepson and the boy fled to live with his mother’s relatives in Sonora. Later, Ward went to Fort Buchanan and claimed that Cochise and the Chiricahuas had kidnapped the boy and some cattle. About three months later, Lieutenant Colonel Pitcairn Morrison sent Second Lieutenant George N. Bascom and about sixty men to retrieve the boy and the cattle. They were to use force if necessary. Ward accompanied them.<sup>[1964]</sup>

Bascom and his men arrived in the Apache Pass on February 4, 1861. Bascom stopped at the Butterfield Overland Mail Company’s corral in the Pass, and then proceeded east. Cochise voluntarily went to their camp, along with several of his relatives and friends. Bascom invited Cochise and the other Indians into his tent. Then Ward and a group of soldiers surrounded the tent. Lieutenant Bascom demanded the boy’s

return, as well as the cattle supposedly taken. Ward threatened to hold Cochise and his companions as hostages until he satisfied their demands. Cochise protested his innocence, then drew his knife, cut a slit in the tent and escaped, surprising the soldiers who had surrounded the tent. Cochise fled on foot but his friends were unable to escape. The soldiers bayoneted one of them.<sup>[1965]</sup>

Mangas Coloradas' daughter Dos-Teh-Seh married Cochise, a leader of the Chokonon band of the Apache, which naturally allied Cochise with Mangas Coloradas. Cochise gathered his warriors and they attacked the employees of the Butterfield Overland Mail, killing one and taking the other one prisoner. That night, they captured a wagon train in which there were two Americans and eight Mexicans. Cochise, under a truce flag, offered to exchange the Americans for the six Apaches that Bascom retained but Bascom refused the offer. Lieutenant Bascom sent messengers to Fort Buchanan to get help. On February 14, 1861, Lieutenant Isaiah N. Moore and seventy men arrived. Meanwhile, Cochise killed the Americans he had held hostage. Bascom bound the six Indian hostages and hung them in the closest trees. The "Bascom Affair," tragic and needless, motivated Cochise to wage a long and terrible war to rid the area of all the Americans in Arizona.<sup>[1966]</sup>

Mangas Coloradas tried to expel the intruders from his homeland, wiped out a mail party, and besieged Charles Hayden's freight train. Numerous skirmishes took place with a company of "Arizona Rangers" acting under Confederate authority. In mid-1862, by the time the California Column, a military force of about 2,350 Union volunteers, had arrived, Mangas had almost succeeded in depopulating the Pinos Altos area of miners. The Union soldiers, led by Colonel James Henry Carleton, commander of the First California Volunteer Infantry, marched from April to August 1862 over 900 miles from California, across the southern New Mexico Territory to the Rio Grande and then into western Texas to drive the Confederate troops out of New Mexico.<sup>[1967]</sup> In January 1863, the U.S. military captured Mangas Coloradas and incarcerated him at Fort McLean in Arizona where the military guards brutally killed him without any kind of trial. The guards then mutilated his dead body, including scalping him, which further incited the Apaches.<sup>[1968]</sup>

General James H. Carleton, a Freemason,<sup>[1969]</sup> first targeted the Mescalero Apaches of south central New Mexico. The U.S. military had already suppressed them in the mid-1850s and had erected Fort Stanton on the Rio Bonita in May 1855, to keep them in check. Then the war began and the military abandoned the post. Thereafter, in 1861, the Apaches preyed on the white settlers. In September 1862, Indian Agent Lorenzo Labadi wrote to Washington officials, "The only permanent remedy for these evils is in the colonization of these Indians. Reservations should be at once located and the Indians forced to reside upon them."<sup>[1970]</sup>

William P. Dole, Commissioner of Indian Affairs, collaborated with the military and the Interior Department, who waged a stealthy campaign against the Indians. The Lincoln Administration appointed John Palmer Usher, a native New Yorker, lawyer, and racial segregation advocate as Secretary of the Interior on January 8, 1863. He executed Lincoln's concentration policy, "This department will make provision for such Indians as will submit to its authority and locate upon the reservation. Those who resist should be pursued by the military, and punished."<sup>[1971]</sup> Punishment, of course, meant that they would be shot and killed.

In January 1863, General Carleton appointed General Joseph R. West to conduct an extermination program against the Chiricahua whose land had the richest mineral deposits in the entire southwest. The Chiricahua, according to the U.S. military, had two choices – either submit or die. The miners, joined forces with the military and lured a group of Chiricahua leaders, including a white-flag carrying Mangas Coloradas into their camp. Miners apprehended him and turned him over to soldiers who were waiting nearby. The soldiers, following West's instructions sadistically tortured and then killed him. West wanted

him dead!<sup>[1972]</sup> West was later a U.S. Republican Senator (1871-1877) from Louisiana where he was chair of the Committee on Railroads.

General Carleton implemented the genocidal conquest of the Mescaleros and Navajos. If that failed, he planned to press a mandatory cultural transformation on the Indians. In the name of wartime security, he suppressed all liberties and imposed a veritable military dictatorship in New Mexico. He viewed himself as an “empire builder, an agent of Manifest Destiny,” who was compelled to protect settlers, subdue, and exploit the indigenous peoples and their lands. Settlers discovered mineral deposits in New Mexico by the headwaters of the Gila River and in the mountains of central Arizona, created as a separate territory in February 1863. Carleton believed that the territory was an El Dorado and he wanted experienced California miners to come work the area along with sufficient troops to “sweep aside the Indians,” and to protect the miners while they developed the area.<sup>[1973]</sup>



General Carleton ordered Lieutenant Colonel Christopher “Kit” Houston Carson, a former trapper, trader, army scout, and Indian agent in the Rocky Mountain West to reactivate Fort Stanton and ordered the killing of all Indian men and capture of all women and children. There was to be no peace, just Indian submission. Carleton told Carson, “The whole duty can be summed up in a few words; the Indians are to be soundly whipped, without parleys or councils.”<sup>[1974]</sup> Kit Carson, a Freemason, portrayed as a hero by the government education system and the media, has had numerous schools and other facilities named in his honor.

Carson and his First Mexico Regiment executed a brutal campaign against the Mescalero Apaches in southeastern New Mexico with an order to kill all of the men. The troops were to take women and children as prisoners. By March 1863, Carson’s troops had slaughtered at least 300 Mescaleros. They force-marched the survivors, over 400 people, to Bosque Redondo, a concentration camp, where they incarcerated them. The inmates attempted to grow food but the scarcity of water rendered them all destitute and starving. Others fled to Mexico.<sup>[1975]</sup>

In the spring of 1863, General Carleton needed funds to build a major road to the Navajo mining area where miners had discovered gold. To gain support, he sent gold nuggets to members of Lincoln’s cabinet. To facilitate the road-building efforts, Carleton instructed Carson to implement a scorched earth policy against the poorly armed Navajo farmers and ranchers in order to starve them out instead of battling with them.<sup>[1976]</sup> In July 1863, Carson stationed his troops at Fort Canby. They established another base at Fort Wingate. Carson’s volunteers burned homes, crops, killed livestock, contaminated water supplies, and relentlessly kept the Indians on the run. Starvation soon overpowered Navajo resistance and forced them to surrender.<sup>[1977]</sup> By fall, Carson and his men had burned 187 acres of corn and fifteen acres of wheat. The soldiers gunned down any Indian attempting to negotiate with them. Now starving and desperate, the Navajo began raiding nearby ranches for food. The desperate survivors were finally compelled to surrender.<sup>[1978]</sup>

President Abraham Lincoln in his State of the Union Address on December 8, 1863 said, “The condition of the several organized Territories is generally satisfactory, although Indian disturbances in New Mexico have not been entirely suppressed. The mineral resources of Colorado, Nevada, Idaho, New Mexico, and

Arizona are proving far richer than has been heretofore understood...The measures provided at your last session for the removal of certain Indian tribes have been carried into effect. Sundry treaties have been negotiated, which will in due time be submitted for the constitutional action of the Senate. They contain stipulations for extinguishing the *possessory rights* of the Indians to large and valuable tracts of lands.”<sup>[1979]</sup> Andrew Jackson who claimed that the Indians had only a “possessory right” to the land they lived on initially used the term “possessory right.” Jackson said that made them subservient to U.S. sovereignty. Therefore, U.S. “national security” required their removal outside of the geographical boundaries of the country.<sup>[1980]</sup>

Predictably, potential settlers interpreted Lincoln’s Homestead Act to mean that all Indian lands were now available to white settlement. Two men were hugely responsible for its passage, George Henry Evans and Horace Greeley, an avid socialist. They viewed the Act as the “first symbol of progress” which would inevitably lead to conflicts between the indigenous populations and the white settlers. The official policy of resource seizure and development and “gold fever” provided additional motivation for western white settlement. The Indians did not place inordinate value on gold as opposed to the white man’s obsession – another indication that the Indians were somehow inherently flawed.<sup>[1981]</sup> Homesteading, mining and railroading were proof of civilization, progress and most of all commercialism.

By January 1864, Carson, at Carleton’s direction, invaded the Navajo stronghold in Canyon de Chelly and laid waste to their fields and poisoned their wells.<sup>[1982]</sup> Apparently, without mercy, Carson’s troops slaughtered vulnerable men, women and children on the cliffs and those attempting to hide in the caves. The soldiers opened fire and indiscriminately killed everyone that moved. The Navajo had only bows and arrows and few escaped the massacre. The survivors begged for peace terms but instead the military commanded them to go to Bosque Redondo, the reservation on the Pecos River, 400 miles away. That was the only option – starve, be killed, or undergo a forced march to the concentration camp during the freezing winter of 1863-1864. One survivor remembers – a pregnant woman, now in the midst of labor, found it impossible to keep walking. Her family begged the soldiers to allow their exhausted daughter to stop just long enough to give birth. The gun-toting soldiers forced the Indians to continue walking. Moments later the Indians heard a gunshot. Of the 8,000 Navajos who began the “long walk” 3,000 perished.<sup>[1983]</sup>

Within a short time, the military held 8,000 Apaches and Navajos at Bosque Redondo, many with inadequate clothes or blankets to survive the weather. The military gunned down stragglers on the forced march, like the young mother, as a warning to the others. Indian Commissioner William P. Dole had advocated concentration for Indians living in New Mexico as early as 1861. Carleton claimed that the Indian incarceration was humanitarian in order to promote the superior white civilization. After Indian removal, the government opened former Navajo homelands to white settlement. They forced the Navajos to forsake their lifestyle and learn Euro-American farming.<sup>[1984]</sup>

The removal period took four years, from 1864 to 1868. Carson’s objective was to destroy the Navajo’s agricultural capacity. Because of his success, about 9,000 Navajos ultimately surrendered. Carson and his men gathered the Indians at Fort Defiance, Arizona, and then force-marched them to Bosque Redondo, the location for all the captive Indians in the New Mexico Territory. Because of insufficient provisions and shelter in the camp, over 3,500 perished over the next four years from lack of shelter and inadequate food. The prisoners were compelled to live in holes in the ground.<sup>[1985]</sup> Another U.S. Army General, Dwight D. Eisenhower, in his extermination camps in Germany, followed the same egregious policies and inmates there were obliged to live in holes in the ground. There seems to be an elite pattern of despicable, dastardly behavior and history does indeed repeat itself.

On January 24, 1864, King S. Woolsey enticed thirty warriors into his camp by promising them tobacco.

Instead, Woolsey and others slaughtered and scalped twenty-four of the warriors. Historians often refer to this as the Battle of Bloody Tanks, yet it was a deliberate massacre of the Indians in which they, in self-defense killed one settler.<sup>[1986]</sup> Woolsey, a rancher, had settled in Prescott, Arizona in 1860 where he sold supplies to the army, making him a war profiteer. For his efforts in the Battle of Bloody Tanks, Governor John N. Goodwin, a Freemason, awarded Woolsey the position of Lieutenant Colonel of the Arizona territorial militia. Governor Goodwin, the first territorial governor, was a lawyer, politician and New York businessman. Lincoln had appointed him governor on December 29, 1863.



Geronimo and Cochise, Chiricahua chiefs, quickly perceived, after the murder of Mangas Coloradas, that they could not trust the whites and their so-called peace negotiations nor any of their promises. In the spring of 1864, Carleton authorized a total genocidal war against the Chiricahua – kill every Apache – men, women and children. Local ranchers eagerly joined with the military in the work of terror and death. The U.S. Army supplied Woolsey’s group of vigilantes who terrorized numerous Apache encampments, slaughtering dozens of people and scattering the survivors. On the evening of April 9, 1864, Woolsey made plans for a sunrise attack the next morning on a major Apache encampment near Big Rump Valley.<sup>[1987]</sup>

However, the observant Chiricahuas had seen their campfire smoke and were hurrying to break camp. They had almost evacuated their encampment by the time the vigilantes struck. Unfortunately, a few were unable to escape into the mountains. The Indians thwarted Woolsey’s plans for total annihilation and he was enraged. He ordered his men to destroy the village. One of his terrorist thugs, Sugarfoot Jack, discovered an infant inadvertently and sadly “left behind during the Indian’s hasty retreat.” He picked the baby up and “tossed it into a burning hut, and watched with apparent delight as the baby roasted alive.” Others endeavored unsuccessfully to rescue the child. Jack, a savage, found another unfortunate child. After playing with the toddler for a while, “bouncing it on his knee and tickling it under the chin, he took out his revolver, put it to the child’s head, and pulled the trigger.”<sup>[1988]</sup> Today’s wartime slaughter, where women and children are collateral damage, does not seem as personal or evoke the same outrage as thinking of a man deliberately incinerating an infant. Yet, high-flying bombardiers who drop explosives that immediately ignite and burn children, toddlers and babies is comparable.

A furious argument broke out amongst Woolsey’s men; many were justifiably incensed over the senseless, cruel killing of children and threatened to shoot Jack who quickly left. Some maintained that warfare demanded the killing of everyone, despite sex or age. Woolsey confirmed Carleton’s policy against the Indians and his own resolve “to fight on the broad platform of extermination.”<sup>[1989]</sup>

Territorial Secretary Richard C. McCormick, former Wall Street pro-Lincoln businessman, wrote in a letter to Congressman Charles D. Poston on March 5, 1864, “I am in favor of an utter extermination of the ruthless savages who have so long prevented the settlement and development of the Territory.”<sup>[1990]</sup> In 1860, McCormick was the editor of the *New York Evening Post* and then became a war correspondent during Lincoln’s War. The U.S. government officially appointed him as the Arizona Governor on March 14, 1866 (1866-1868). McCormick was later a U.S. Congressman from New York (1895-1897).

Bosque Redondo ultimately held 10,000 souls. By summer 1864, the Pecos River was hardly more than a

stagnant quagmire swarming with mosquitoes, which resulted in a plague of malaria. Brutish uncivilized soldiers habitually raped Indian women, which led to widespread syphilis and gonorrhea among the Indians. Other diseases associated with overcrowding and malnutrition contributed to their wretchedness. Shortly, Carleton was patting himself on the back for introducing the Indian population of New Mexico to “the art of peace” and “the truths of Christianity.”<sup>[1991]</sup>

The site of Bosque Redondo was barren and infertile and the available water was brackish and unfit for human consumption. The government-supplied food was scant and unfamiliar. Civil authorities and the Department of the Interior argued over who was responsible for the pathetic situation on the reservation. Additionally, unscrupulous officials employed the same spoils system evident in Minnesota in New Mexico – agents everywhere benefited from the suffering of the Indians. Inferior merchandise was overpriced. Food was often spoiled or tainted.<sup>[1992]</sup>

The government viewed any deterrents or implied threats by the Indians as a military problem, against Manifest Destiny, or they categorized them as insurrections, in the South or anywhere else, and they would deal with such incidences militaristically as evidenced in Colorado and New Mexico. Lincoln’s priorities dictated the events of 1864-1865. Lincoln’s Indian Policy and the necessity for the Union to win the war at all costs were associated with the exploitation of the mineral resources and the construction of the railroad.<sup>[1993]</sup> According to Lincoln, Indian hostilities hampered the process of organizing governments in Idaho and Montana. He assured Congress that “these difficulties are about to disappear, which will permit their governments, like those of the others, to go into speedy and full operation.”<sup>[1994]</sup>

Lincoln said, “The national resources, then, are unexhausted, and, as we believe, inexhaustible. The public purpose to reestablish and maintain the national authority is unchanged, and, as we believe, unchangeable.” Following Henry Clay’s American System, Lincoln was quickly selling huge quantities of public land for commercial development. By September 30, 1864, Lincoln had disposed of 4,221,342 acres, including military land warrants, agricultural scrip certified to States for railroads, and sold for cash. The cash received from sales and location fees was \$1,019,446. The income from sales during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1864, was \$678,007.21.<sup>[1995]</sup>

Lincoln, in his State of the Union address, on December 6, 1864, said he “believed that under the present organization the management of the Indians” would render “reasonable success.” He intended to eliminate any obstacles, including legitimate Indian settlements that mired western resource development and white settlement, aided by the transcontinental railroad and the Homestead Act of May 20, 1862 with 1,538,614 acres available.<sup>[1996]</sup>

Lincoln revitalized his plan to use Union troops, returned from incarceration by the Confederacy, against the Indians. By 1865, the federal government had twenty thousand troops in the western frontier. The Seventh Cavalry spent their entire service between 1863 and 1865 in Dakota, Wyoming, Colorado, Kansas, and Nebraska. The government experimented with its policy of concentration in California, Colorado and New Mexico.<sup>[1997]</sup>

In 1872, Cochise negotiated for peace with General Oliver Otis Howard and mail agent Thomas Jeffords. Thereafter, Cochise, with his band, began the terrible transition to reservation life. Cochise died in 1874.<sup>[1998]</sup>

## CONCLUSIONS

After reading this book, one might get the impression that I hate America. Quite the contrary, I love America and appreciate the millions of wonderful, hardworking people who live here. Because of what I have researched and written, people might perceive me as anti-American, unsupportive of America's troops, or a radical leftist or maybe even a closet Communist. Those are just some of the discrediting characterizations attached to anyone who even questions past and current U.S. domestic and foreign policy.

While I once considered myself a devoted conservative, I have discarded that artificial description. I am not Republican or a Democrat, two corrupt parties that long ago abandoned ethical and moral principles. Almost with their inception, the bankers and their agents have co-opted, staffed and corrupted both parties. Sadly, both parties, infiltrated by strong influential personalities, have followed the same agenda, but from a diametrically different direction and the bankers fund both parties whose top echelon acquiesce and promote the industrialist's self-serving programs. Despite the anti-war claims of the Democrats or the preventative war tactics of the Republicans, we are consistently involved in war, a cover for the corporations to seize valuable assets, transfer wealth or subdue dissenting populations. All of these warfare objectives create massive debts and the ultimate destruction of the U.S. economy.

Third parties or alternative candidates in either party, regardless of their sincerity, their purported intentions, their laborious efforts, have little real hope of the citizens electing them for a couple of reasons – the biased, controlled media and the absolute control, by both parties of the computer voting apparatus. We have gradually evolved into an idolatrous country. We have relinquished our personal independence, abandoned many of our values and surrendered the responsibility for our own welfare to others – mere human beings, the people in Congress, those sitting on the Supreme Court and the President of whichever party has current power. We are a class-based society that is regularly ruled by psychopathic personalities who portray themselves as capable of solving the problems that have brought this nation to the edge of the darkest abyss. When, in fact, they are the very people who have created the problems for the rest of humankind. While I do not fall into a political category, I do embrace a religious one – I am a Christian; therefore I denounce violence and war. Unfortunately, Christians do not always agree with Christ. Gandhi said, “Everyone but Christians understands that Jesus was nonviolent.” I also denounce the usury system that enslaves every single person in the majority of every country in the world – those who have allowed the predatory, parasitical leech-like bankers to establish privately owned central banks. Unfortunately, most of the debt slaves are unaware of the satanical system that has enslaved them.

Writing this book has been a painful but revelatory journey, as I have thoroughly researched people who the educational and media systems, often funded by those same bankers, have portrayed as heroes while they have characterized others who oppose them and their insidious programs as villains. Regarding this phenomenon, a scripture is apropos, “Woe unto them that call evil good, and good evil; that put darkness for light, and light for darkness; that put bitter for sweet, and sweet for bitter!” Because of my exploration, if the corporate media is “puffing” or promoting a particular person, I assume he/she is on their payroll. Even if a factor, like the proverbial left wing of the corporate media structure seems to be vilifying someone, then I assume they are attempting to build sympathy and support for their poor, biased victim. It is a tactic, nothing more. Listen to what these people say; ignore their attractive looks, their vibrant personalities, their claims of efficiency, or their business proficiency and their claims of morality or spirituality. If he/she embraces war, you know what side he/she serves – the banks and the corporations. The banks and the corporations, despite the number of people they have previously employed do not represent national values and the best interests of America, despite their claims to the contrary. Local

governments have named schools, streets and towns to honor Christopher Columbus, Kit Carson, and numerous politicians. Yet Columbus and Carson butchered men, women and children within the indigenous populations. Lincoln supposedly saved the Union by initiating an unnecessary “total war” that led to the fratricidal deaths of 622,000 fellow Americans. Lincoln could have and should have resolved the issues of the nation by attending the conference designed to address the policy differences between the two sections of the country but he refused to attend that meeting.

People do not like to admit that others have deceived them. We are accustomed to thinking that we know what is transpiring because we are educated and purportedly informed; we live in an industrialized nation and have advantages that other nations do not enjoy. That does not give us some kind of exclusivity or give us any moral rights to police the planet. However, even if that situation were true, it should make us more responsible for our ethical choices. Most Americans do not know what their government is doing, or what it has done in the past in the name of the citizens of this country. That is because there is a total absence of transparency and accountability. The U.S. government has participated in false flags operations, has deliberately created bogus horror stories to evoke hatred of co-called enemies, people who happen to disagree with American business or bank policies. Government officials, with foreknowledge of imminent deadly attacks, have allowed the senseless slaughter of U.S. citizens. They accommodate these events and remain silent for ulterior political, philosophical or personal reasons. Additionally, the CIA, an agency that answers to the president, has carried out covert military interventions in dozens of countries in order to accommodate political or corporate interests. While we are not collectively guilty, we are collectively responsible for the egregious actions that our government has conducted. They have not participated in these activities for the good of our nation. They feed the greed of the elite minority.

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